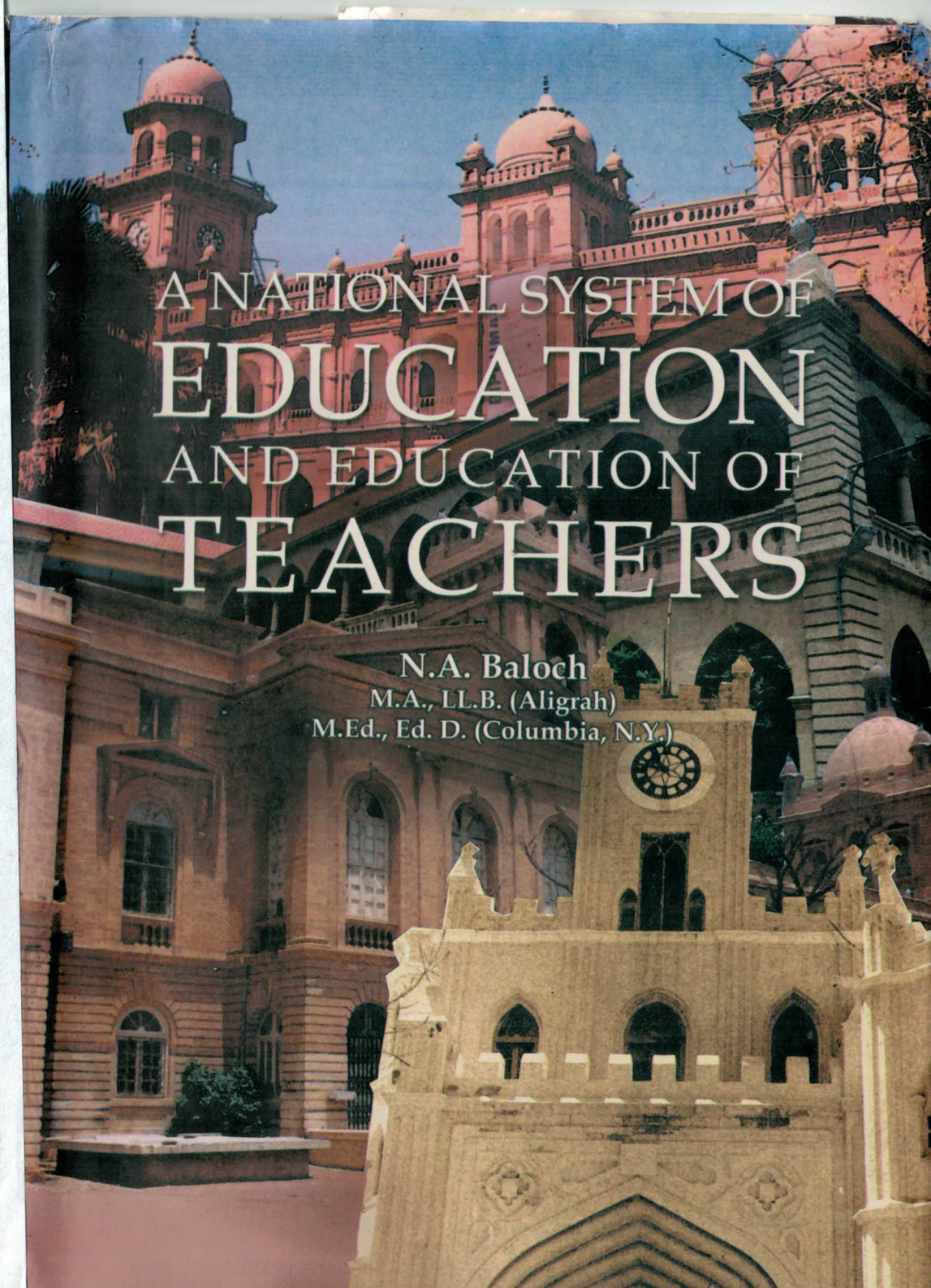

A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION AND EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

N.A. Baloch
M.A., LL.B. (Aligrah)
M.Ed., Ed. D. (Columbia, N.Y.)

It is noteworthy that the subject matter of the book coincided with the birth of our beloved country Pakistan in 1947. The contents of the book, therefore, appropriately discuss the policy guidelines for the nascent country and embody the entire spectrum of history, system, policies and institutions inherited in the education sector by Pakistan. The book also exhaustively makes a positive critique of the educational policies, programs implemented in Pakistan since independence offering cogent recommendations for improvement.

The need for a book on such vital subject has assumed greater significance as the national achievement in the field of education has remained abysmally low after 56 years of independence.

Dr. Baloch has endeavored to investigate the reasons for this deterioration marked by low population coverage and poor quality of education in our society. As one who is now devoting most of his energies for the promotion of human resources, including education, I am particularly pleased to observe that Dr. Baloch has given some sound advice for improving the quality of teacher education. Without emphasis on teacher education, we cannot improve quality of education for our young generation.

Dr. A.Q. Khan ***NI & Bar, HI***
Special Advisor to the
Prime Minister of Pakistan
on Strategic Programme

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and Ministry of Culture; Chairman National Institute of Historical and Cultural Research; Member of the Pay Commission, Member of the Federal Review Board; and Advisor to the National Hijra Council.

His more distinctive contribution came in his capacity as the first Vice Chancellor of the Islamic University, Islamabad (now International Islamic University), which was developed and made fully functional within the shortest period of time on record. From 1991 to 1993 Dr. Baloch served as the first Chairman of the Sindhi Language Authority, Hyderabad. In 1993, he served as Minister of Education, Agriculture and Wild Life in the Sindh Caretaker Cabinet.

Dr. Baloch has participated in and presided over a number of National and International Seminars and Conferences, and is a recognized scholar of international repute. Besides a large number of research papers, he is the author and editor of more than 80 books, in five different languages (English, Sindhi, Urdu, Persian and Arabic), and on such important subjects as Education, History, Culture, Literature, Lexicography, Music and Folklore. He developed and directed the Great Books Project of the Hijra Council, Islamabad, aimed at translating and editing into English One Hundred Great Books of Islamic Civilization. Earlier, Dr. Baloch directed another important project. This was the **Sindhi Folklore Project** under which he edited and published forty four volumes on different generic varieties of Sindhi Folklore. Lastly he has completed a ten-volume project on Shah Abdul Latif's Poetic Compendium (RISALO) and its one volume Lexicon (ROSHNI).

Dr. Baloch has remained a member of the Governing Bodies of important academic and cultural institutions in Pakistan, and also served as a member of the UNESCO's International Scientific Committee (Paris) on preparation of a History of Central Asian Civilization.

Dr. Baloch is presently Professor Emeritus (Education) Sindh University, and Incharge Professor of the Allama I.I.

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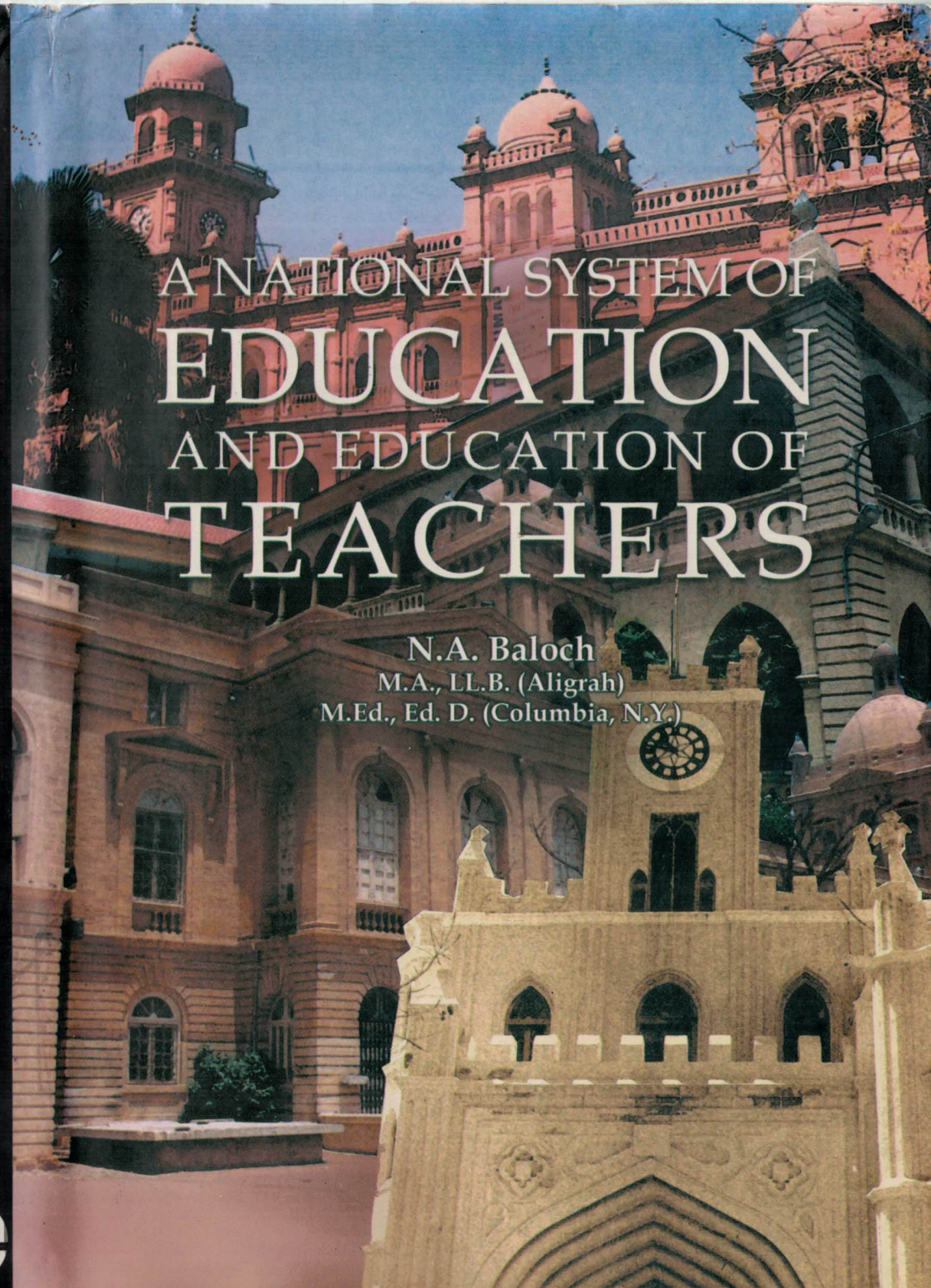

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N. A. Baloch

Sindh Institute of Policy Studies

Mohammad Umar Chand

Dr Baloch's research
adviser at Columbia
University was
A.S. Evenden
& special adviser was
Dr Karl W. Bigelow

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And Education of Teachers

By N.A. Baloch

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You know that the importance of Education, and of the right type of education, cannot be overemphasized. Under the foreign rule for over a century, sufficient attention has not been paid to the education of our people, and if we are to make real, speedy and substantial progress, we must earnestly tackle this question.

Quaid-e-Azam, Muhammad Ali Jinnah
(Excerpt from message to the Pakistan Educational Conference, Karachi; November – 1947).

History of Education in India under the Rule of East India Company by Major B. D. Basu 1867
History of Education in India by J. P. Naik 1943
A History of English Education 1871 – 1897 1781

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Publisher's Note

It is indeed a matter of great honour for Sindh Institute of Policy Studies(SIPS), a nascent intellectual forum, to publish the first ever organized research work done by any Pakistani scholar on the proposed educational system for Pakistan.

The work was completed only two years after the creation of this country. Since then the country has seen a number of upheavals, most serious being separation of erstwhile East Pakistan (now Bangladesh). The institutional organization in education has also undergone a number of experimental changes. However, unfortunately, the system is yet to have a single direction to achieve the much trumpeted objectives.

The main merit of the work done right at the birth of an ideological state on the world map is that the foundations for a national system of education were identified, a programmme of educating teachers with professional competence and qualities of leadership was elaborated, and the policies governing the colonial system were analyzed to indicate what contributed to its failure. Thus, for the first time, the question was answered, even though partly, what needed to be changed to establish a national system of education for Pakistan.

Being the very first doctorate thesis on educational change and development in Pakistan, this work assumes importance in the educational history of Pakistan.

At the dawn of the 21st century, its study may enthuse, and also amuse, the young Pakistani educators how a predecessor, long back in the mid–20th century, was visualizing a 'national system of education' for Pakistan and proposing a programme of teacher education for its establishment.

In a way this work may serve as a sign–post to measure the distance we have covered in our educational progress during the course of half a century. Accordingly, the very original text has been retained.

We feel indebted to Dr. N.A. Baloch, the most respected educationist of the country, who only from among the living legends can claim to be a **teacher of the teachers** (being the founder Chairman of the first institute of teachers education established in Pakistan, by Allama I.I. Kazi, in the University of Sindh Hyderabad) to have so graciously accepted our request to publish his monumental work.

Prof. Muhammad Yusuf
Chairman (Hony.)
Sindh Institute of Policy Studies

Larkana, Pakistan
18 July 2003

Introduction

I had already obtained a Master's Degree in Education from the Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, when Pakistan was established in 1947. To work for the Doctorate Degree, I decided to formulate ideals for a **'national system of education'** for the new state of Pakistan to replace the then prevalent colonial system and to propose a programme of teacher education to bring about the needed change. The present work is the thesis I elaborated during 1948–49, which led to the award (May 10, 1949)of Degree of Doctor of Education.

Main objective of this research effort is to offer proposals for the preparation of teachers in Pakistan for a national system of education. But no **national** system of education exists at present. All the educational authorities in Pakistan are unanimous that the present system of education does not provide a sound basis for the development of a truly national system of education. Therefore, the major portion of the project, Chapters I to IV, have been devoted to the exploration of conceptual possibilities for the reconstruction of national education. Chapter V deals with the process of effecting educational change in general, while Chapter VI is concerned with the process of educating the prospective teachers in Pakistan. One of the basic viewpoints stressed in this report is that the new national system of education must meet the needs of the society. The first Chapter is, therefore, concerned with identifying and emphasizing some of the major needs and problems of the nation.

Chapter II is focused on the national viewpoint expressed in a Resolution of the Pakistan Educational Conference that "the educational system in Pakistan should be inspired by Islamic ideology emphasizing among many of its characteristics those of universal brotherhood, tolerance and justice." An attempt is made, therefore, in this Chapter to explore "many" other characteristics of the Islamic education. An understanding of some of the significant features of this past educational tradition of the Islamic society, particularly those related to the financial support, control, examinations, designing of curricula, freedom of teaching, and the relation-

ship between the school and the community should be helpful in determining the direction of educational change in Pakistan.

Although the national opinion is unanimous that the present system of education must be "entirely overhauled", no adequate attention has been given to what specifically needs to be done. Chapter III is designed to analyze and explain such policies and practices of the present system of education which must be changed immediately. Closely related to Chapter III is Chapter IV, in which an attempt is made to emphasize the changes needed in the field of teacher education. Both in Chapter III and IV attention is primarily centered on those overall problems, policies and procedures which have hindered the progress of education and which, therefore, call for urgent changes.

Chapter V deals with the process of reconstructing a national system of education. In this chapter the sources for educational change have been explained, the foundations for national education have been described, and the objectives of national education have been determined. The proposals are offered for the improvement of the educative process and also for the resolution of some of the crucial problems such as the articulation of the primary and secondary education, teaching of languages, and the educational responsibilities of the local bodies, provinces, and the federal government.

In Chapter VI proposals are offered for the preparation of prospective teachers in Pakistan. Attention is mainly centered on the process of educating the teachers rather than on any quantitative measures. Herein, such desirable aspects of the American educational thought, as are relevant to the education of teachers in Pakistan, have been fully presented in order to stimulate the thinking of those who may be concerned with the preparation of the prospective teachers. The author is conscious of the fact that any specific plans for the educational reconstruction in general and the education of teachers in particular could only be formulated by each province of Pakistan in terms of its own needs and circumstances. The members of the Central Advisory Board of Education, while introducing their late report on Post–War Educational Development, said:

> **They also realize that conditions in different parts of India vary greatly and that consequently their aims should be to indicate the**

> **main lines which development should follow rather than to prescribe uniform or detailed plan. It will be for the responsible educational authorities to devise for themselves within the general lines laid down the type of education most appropriate to their particular areas.**

In keeping with this viewpoint, some broad principles have been outlined and stressed for education of the prospective teachers and relevant proposals have been offered on every aspect of the educative process. These general principles and proposals, author believes, are sound enough to stimulate thought and action for teachers' education programs in each province. They are the directional goals for the preparation of the prospective teachers.

In Chapter VII, the obstacles in the achievement of the desired educational change, as well as the factors favourable to it, have been briefly mentioned and the immediate "next steps" necessary for the educational improvement proposed.

An attempt has been made to consult, as far as possible, the original sources of information. The analysis of the educational problems and policies during the British period has been based on the well known official reports. Wherever direct information from some of these official reports has not been available, Nurullah and Naik's important work "History of Education in India During the British Period" has been freely used.

Although the work has remained unpublished, it was made available to individual scholars for consultation. It was often suggested that in view of its historical importance the manuscript should be printed. This became possible when Prof. Muhammad Yusuf Shaikh selected it to become the first publication of the Sindh Institute of Policy Studies Larkana. I compliment him for his praiseworthy initiative.

I avail of this belated opportunity to acknowledge my indebtedness to the teachers under whom I studied at Teachers College Columbia University (1946–1948) and with whom I consulted during the course of completing this work.

Hyderabad Sindh
10 May 2003

N.A Baloch

Chapter I

PAKISTAN: A GENERAL PERSPECTIVE FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

The Background of National Independence

The social, cultural and political patterns and problems of the present Indo-Pakistan sub-continent are the outcome of successive migrations and invas-ions from outside since time immemorial and of innumerable internal conflicts, co–operations and adjustments, within which the political configurations and communal patterns of the country have changed constantly. Apart from its geographic unity, the history of this sub-continent is analogous to that of Europe with its numerous kingdoms, empires, races, cultures and languages. Never in its past history of centuries prior to the 16th century was this vast country entirely under any one political authority. The ancient emperors like the Jain Chandragupta (circa 312-296 BC), the Buddhist Asoka (268-226 BC), the Brahamin Vikramaditya (circa 380-413 A.D) and the Buddhist Harasha (648 A.D) extended their empires only as far as Northern, Northwestern and Central India. They all had to contend both with the powerful, contemporary, independent emperors of Western and Southern India and with the invading conquerors on the Northwest. Later, the Muslim emperors of the Sultants period (12-14 centuries A.D) like Muhammad B. Tughluq Ferozeshah and Ala-ud-Din extended their rule effectively only over Northern, Northwestern and Central India

and occasionally over Eastern provinces and parts of Deccan in the south. This vast sub-continent was united for the first time under one political authority only under the powerful Mughal Empire (16-18 centuries A.D) and later on under the recent British rule (19-20 centuries).

The one latest unifying force among the immemorial and innumerable differences and divisions – social, cultural, political and ethnological – in this vast sub-continent has been the widely pervading influence of one or the other religion. At the various stages of history, Hinduism, Buddhism and Islam have exercised their overall influence throughout the country. Therefore, in a broader sense one often speaks of the land with an underlying concept of unity, as Hindu India, Buddhist India and 'Muslim India'.

It was only during two important historical periods of social, religious and cultural synthesis that an overall concept of "Indian" (distinguished from "Hindu") unity was ever achieved. The one was for a brief period during the reigns of tolerant Buddhist emperors when Hinduism and Buddhism were reconciled; this unity, however was soon destroyed by the subsequent rise of the aggressive Brahmanism, under whose sway Buddhism succumbed completely. The other period of more effective cultural synthesis was achieved during the Mughal period when the social, cultural and political institutions of Islam and Hinduism were reconciled.

When the British conquered India by crushing Muslim power, their colonial policy of divide-and-rule revived the long suppressed antagonism between the two great communities. Up to the end of the 19th century the Muslim element was still powerful. The dogged opposition of the Muslims, however alienated the sympathies of the new conquerors who then systematically built up the strength of the Hindu community by giving them exclusive encouragement in every walk of life. By the beginning of the twentieth century Hinduism was again on the march and the extremist element was already preparing to wreak revenge upon their former rulers, the Muslims. By 1920, this element began to capture the platform of the national movement which had been initiated in the name of the 'National Congress' through the combined efforts of both the Muslims and the Hindus. During the twenties 'nationalism' began to be identified with the dreams and ideals of the Hindu

Community, and was soon shorn of its truly objective national values.

At this time, the prominent Muslim national leaders who had fought against the British domination continuously, were disappointed with the changing policy of their Hindu colleagues, and they quit the 'National Congress' to find their own salvation for the political future of the Muslim Community. Slowly as the 'National Congress' became Hindu dominated and contrived to gain power for the Hindu community, the Muslim political organization, the 'Muslim League' organized during the first decade of this(20th) century, began to gain strength and support from the Muslim population and other minority groups.

In 1937, the Hindu Congress Ministries were entrenched into seven provinces and got the final and the best opportunity to prove their national ideologies. But, instead of showing their good will to all, they committed the blunder of persecuting the Muslim minorities in the Hindu majority provinces. This finally convinced Muslim Community of the empty claims of 'nationalism' on the part of Hindu leaders, and in 1940, the Muslim League passed its momentous resolution to establish an independent state of 'Pakistan' in the Muslim majority Provinces. Subsequently, when the 'National Congress' and extremists of the Hindu communal organizations of Mahasabha closed their ranks and formed a united front, their cleavage between the two major communities, the Hindus and the Muslims, became clearly defined.

The political differences were now evidently irreconcilable and the struggle for independences of both the Hindu Congress and the Muslim League took the turn of diplomatic maneouvers both against each other and against the British Government. The Congress launched the movement of 'Quit India' and gave an indirect support to the elements cooperating with the Japanese in order to force the British to yield to their demand under the pressure of war. The Muslim League as a counter-move gave its full cooperation to the war efforts of the Allies and strengthened its position considerably. At the time of final negotiations for independence, not only was the Muslim League in a better bargaining position but it was stronger than ever before throughout the length and breadth of the country.

The only alternative to a political solution satisfactory both to the Hindu Congress and the Muslim League would have been a prolonged civil war, since the British Government had now declared its intentions to withdraw from the country at the end of a fixed period. Being confronted with this new situation the leaders of the two political parties sagaciously averted civil war and presented to the British Government an agreed solution, which envisaged the creation of two Dominions–the Dominion of Pakistan and the Dominion of India. Thus, on August 15th, 1947, the sub-continent of India gained its independence with the establishment of these two nations. It is for the first time in history, since time immemorial, that the representatives of the people by their mutual agreement have decided to set up two independent states in a sub-continent where there have always existed at least half a dozen independent empires and kingdoms.

Set-up Of Pakistan

The present territories of Pakistan have an area of about 357,683 square miles with a population of over 75 millions. As such it is considered to be the fifth largest state in the world, the first four being in order, China, India, the U.S.S.R and the U.S.A. It consists of two parts Western Pakistan and Eastern Pakistan, widely separated by the Dominion of India.[1] Western Pakistan has an area of 303, 583 square miles and a population of about 40 to 42 millions. The adjacent native states having an overwhelming Muslims population and being socially, culturally and economically connected with Pakistan have all joined Pakistan . The only exception is Kashmir whose Hindu ruler has, against the will of the people (eighty per cent Muslims), joined the Dominion of India.

Western Pakistan includes within its boundaries, four major provinces: Sindh, the partitioned province of Punjab, Northwestern Frontier and Baluchistan. Eastern Pakistan consists of the Eastern part of the partitioned province of Bengal and the Western part of the partitioned province of

[1]See Chart I.

Aasam. All these provinces are autonomous[1] and govern themselves through their provincial legislatures. The Governors of the provinces are all under the Governor General of Pakistan, who is the chief executive of Pakistan .

The Provinces of Pakistan[2]

Sindh has a population of four and a half millions and an area of about 50,000 square miles. Being unaffected by partitioning it has continued on its normal life except for the voluntary and orderly migration of the Hindus to the Indian Dominion and the arrival of the number of Muslim refugees for resettlement in their place. Sindh has a peaceful, hospitable and homogeneous population with a unity of language and culture. It was the first Province to pass an official resolution in its Provincial Assembly endorsing the establishment of Pakistan and has been the home of Pakistan Government after independence. Karachi, the capital of the Province, has been turned over to the Central Government and is now the capital of Pakistan. As a seaport Karachi is the main gateway of Asia. It is also the biggest international airport of the continent.

This comparatively peaceful and prosperous province has not only extended a warm welcome to the National Government but is likely to contribute much more to the wealth and welfare of Pakistan. This will depend upon the new development schemes, which can improve housing, communication and industry in the province. Its rich alluvial soil, assured water supply from the Indus, adequate labour force and experienced agricultural population assure a great future for the improvement of agriculture and development of agricultural industries. Sindh also looks forward, under nation-

[1]Baluchistan which was formerly a directly administered area, is proposed to be constituted into an autonomous province recently.

[2]See Chart II.

al independence, to the improvement of its indigenous industries like salt, cement, woolen goods, and handloom crafts.

Sindh has a fine harbor and coastline of 150 miles. The development of its water-front, ship-building and fishing industries remains to be achieved by the Provincial and Central Government. The province is a potential source of national wealth and is likely to play an important role in the development of Pakistan.

Punjab has suffered the most under the partition plan. Its Eastern portion has been cut off to form a part of the Indian Dominion. However, the Western part of the province included in Pakistan still remains the real Punjab (the land of five rivers) since the four out of five rivers flow through it. Punjab has a healthy and robust population of sixteen millions and an area of about 62,100 square miles. It has one of the best irrigation systems in the world and is one of the main breadbasket of Pakistan . Punjab is the only province of Pakistan which is already industrialized to some extent. It has petrol refining, textile, chemical, sugar, glass, and leather factories. It has the manufacturing depot of sports goods at Sialkot, the only one in the whole of the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent. Educationally also it is far more advanced than any other Province of Pakistan. However, it has also some formidable problems. The most pressing one at the present state of affairs is that of defense, while the frontier problems will continue on into the future. Due to partitioning the province has also suffered the worst communal strife. About four million Hindus and Sikhs have left for the Indian Dominion while about six million Muslim refugees have swarmed in from the Indian side. This huge dislocation and civil strife have rent asunder the sound economy of the Province. Temporary rehabilitation of refugees has almost been completed but their permanent settlement will need the best administrative energies of the Provincial Government.

Efforts will also have to be made to rebuild the economy of the Province. With the extension and improvement of agricultural industry and the full exploitation of its hydro-electric power resources, Punjab can make a large contribution to national strength and prosperity. Some hydro-electric schemes have already been taken up under the Industrialization policy of the Pakistan Government while

provision has also been made for cotton-ginning, carpet weaving, paper, turpentine, and raisin manufactures, and plywood, vegetable oils, hosiery and cement factories"[1]

The North Western Province has a total area of 38,665 square miles, out of which about 14,000 square miles are under the direct administration of the Provincial Government while the rest comprises vast tribal areas, agencies, and small states. The province has a long frontier with Afghanistan and is the guardian of the historic Khyber Pass and other trade routes with Central Asia and Afghanistan. It is by and large a rugged mountain country inhabited by sturdy Pathans who are a healthy, vigorous and resolute race. During the British rule those people were a constant source of danger to the Government and heavy military expenditures were sanctioned each year to maintain British supremacy in this area. With the establishment of Pakistan the whole land has returned to civil rule and normal life, and become a backbone of Pakistan's power and strength. Cultivation here depends entirely on an irrigation system of wells and dams. The fertile valleys and hillsides grow wheat, rice and specially fruit, of which the normal product is about 50,000 tons per year.

The province with its long and rugged frontier has its formidable problem of defense. It has also the urgent problem of rehabilitating the restless Pathan tribes who have begun to return to settled and peaceful life. The province can become self-sufficient and contribute to Pakistan's national economy if its fertile valleys are developed and its hill torrents, perennial springs and good retentive soil are fully utilized for agricultural produce and industries. One of the biggest sugar factories in the whole of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent is already under construction in the North-western Frontier Province. Survey has also been completed for the exploitation of hydro-electric power resources of the province. The province produces the finest quality of wool and the best qualities of lamb skins, now exported abroad, which can become the valua-

[1] Punjawalla, Maneck B.: An Introduction to Pakistan : Its Resources and Potentialities, The Pakistan Herald, Job Printing Section, South Napier Road, Karachi, 1948, p. 67.

ble raw material for national industries. The province is rich in mineral resources, and a thorough geological survey, already under way, may reveal further potential sources of mineral wealth for the country.

Baluchistan is a vast land, very sparsely populated. It has an area of about 54,500 square miles, and a population of only approximately half a million. It has common frontier with both Iran and Afghanistan, and has some major native states which all have joined Pakistan . It derives its name from its prominent population of Baluchis who are a strong, sturdy and hospitable race. The women folk are expert in embroidery work and carpet weaving. The inhabitants of the province are horsemen and the most experienced cattle breeders in Pakistan. Though largely barren and mountainous, the province has fertile valleys and beautiful oases. Agriculture is carried on by the curious Karez, or underground water channels, by means of springs and small streams. Rice is grown on carefully terraced hillside fields, while wheat and millets are sown on the plains. Baluchistan is the fruit orchard of Pakistan. Melons, dates, several kinds of high quality grapes, apricots, almonds, apples, pomegranates, peaches, nectarines, quinces, plums and cherries are grown in profusion.[1] Cattle culture is widely diff- used throughout its territories, and the province has a potential source of income in its animal products.

There are numerous problems that are peculiar to Baluchistan province. It has great frontier problems, and also constitutional and economic problems. Under British rule it had no provincial status and hence was deprived of many economic and political reforms. Baluchistan and its native states remain to be integrated into a single administrative unit to form an autonomous province with its own legislature and laws.[2] Its long sea coast can develop a fishing industry, and its port, Pasni, with its strategic location, can be developed as a nerve center for inland trade and commerce extending to all parts of Iran and Afghanistan. Under the Medieval Arab rule (700-1000 A.D) it was one of the busiest thorough fares of the

[1]**This Land of Pakistan:** The Publications and Foreign Publicity Department, The Government of Pakistan, Karachi 1948, p.21.

[2]See footnote 1, Page 6 supra.

world for three hundred years.[1] Its underground channels are still to be fully explored for irrigation purposes and the water of its hill torrents now running into desert lagoons, which soon dry up, remains to be conserved for agricultural purposes. Baluchistan has hydro-electrical power potentials and offers a great field for wool and tanning industries. Its vast mountainous territories, in which geological survey is being internally carried on, hold great promise for the mineral wealth of the nation. Many schemes of development are already under the consideration of the central government.

East Pakistan: The whole of the 54,000 square miles of Eastern Pakistan which constitutes a single province (comprising the partitioned parts of Bengal and Assam) is a vast alluvial plain with splendid rivers and a delightful green country. An intense network of its rivers provides a system of interconnected waterways and inexhaustible supplies of fish and of a rich fertilizing silt for the land. It has a 350-mile coastline with innumerable harbour and island deltas. The port of Chittagong is one of the finest in the world.
Bengal produces rich crops of rice and seventy-five per cent of the whole jute product of the world. The rich Syllhet district of Assam supplies sugarcane, cotton and oil seeds. East Pakistan is the home of the Bengali people known for their intelligence and smartness, and it is also the most densely populated region in the whole of Pakistan.

East Pakistan has the foremost problem of defense. It has long frontiers both with Burma and the Indian Dominion. Being far removed from Western Pakistan it must necessarily build up its own formidable defense, particularly when, by its geographically position, it is destined to become the most strategic area in Southeast Asia. As a low-land area, which is often submerged by waters of numerous rivers and the heavy down pours of its monsoon rains, it has some acute problems of housing and sanitation. Economic conditions of the masses due to its dense population are poor, and it needs a great amount of relief on a national level. It has simultaneously great scope for sugar and paper factories, tea plantation, tanneries and forest products. Its railroad communications need to be

[1]Vide, Colonel Sir Thomas Holdich's remarkable work : Gates of India, Macmillan & Co., London 1910, for a detailed account.

improved and extended while its famous muslin industry and other cotton industries are to be revived. Schemes of developing the Chittagong harbour and exploiting the hydro-electrical power resources of the province are already under way. Its needs for industrialization are very acute. East Pakistan produces seventy-five per cent of the world's jute but does not have any jute mills or even the bailing pressers, so far. Orders for the requisite machinery have been placed abroad by the Pakistan Government and it is expected that with the increase of bailing pressers, 300,000 jute bales could be exported annually beginning in 1950.[1]

Progress of Pakistan

On August 15, 1948 Pakistan completed one year of her independence. The progress made during this one year shows that Pakistan has come out successfully through the trials and tribulations attending the birth of her independent existence and has come to stay permanently. The all-round national vitality in surmounting and solving the immediate problems has exposed the mythical propaganda that Pakistan is the creation of one man or the top leaders only. The overall national strength and progress after the death of the nation's founding father Quaid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah is a further tribute to the democratic leadership of Pakistan and the solidarity, sacrifice and determination of her people. The first surplus budget of the nation, the present financial stability, favourable trade balance and potential credit balance both in the sterling and the hard currency areas has falsified the hopes of those who had confidently predicted an economic collapse pf Pakistan.

Today, Pakistan is confident of her present and hopeful about her future. Preserving of her present western democratic institutions and strengthening day by day the foundations of the Islamic democracy, Pakistan is advancing specially as a new and modern democratic state. To quote the most recent impression (December 4, 1948) of a reporter of the New York

[1]**Economic Progress of Pakistan**: The Publications and Foreign Publicity Department, The Government of Pakistan, Karachi, 1948. p.11.

Times stationed in the capital of the Indian Dominion:

> **"After a fortnight spent motoring about in Western Pakistan, the return to the capitals of India reaccentuates the curious individuality of the two nations ....One's out-standing impression is that Pakistan, though not separated from India by any natural boundaries and with close personal ties between the two peoples, is a different nation; and one that is here to stay. There is a feeling of newness about Pakistan, whereas free India, with her crumbling monuments and her preoccupation with tradition, never lets one forget the weight of the past centuries. The closer kinship of Islam, the religion of Pakistan and Christianity, as compared with Hinduism, the predominant creed of India, makes Pakistan seem the more Westernized of the two countries in outlook, if not in physical development."**[1]

On August 15, 1947 Pakistan existed only on paper. The newborn state had no administrative machinery, no records, and no Government buildings. When a limited number of officials started the preliminary work, they worked on floor-mats, since there were no chairs and tables available. Thus, starting from literally nothing, Pakistan has made speedy and great strides in every direction. Within one year the huge secretariat was organized and the whole administrative machinery was built up to guide and direct this fifth largest state in the world. Membership was secured in the United Nations and working relations were established with the main organs of the U.N. and all its specialized agencies; diplomatic missions were exchanged with all the nations that were interested in mutual friendship and cooperation.

Pakistan currency was issued and the State Bank of Pakistan was opened on July 1, 1948 heralding the financial independence of the new state. All the sections of the armed forces, the Army, the Navy and the Air Force were organized and brought up-to-date to a point that they assured the strength of the national defenses. Steps were taken for a speedy indust-

[1]**The New York Times**, Sunday December 6, 1948, New York.

rialization of the country. Almost all the surveys were completed, the industrial policy of the nation was defined, and the work on urgent industrial projects was started. Private enterprise was encouraged and, as a result, two national airway companies and one merchant marine company were chartered; these have long since started their invaluable services. With a strong and free national press, protection of minorities, and an increasing concern for ameliorating the condition of the masses, Pakistan has already strengthened the foundation of an enduring democracy. The recent loss of the founding father, Quaid-e-Azam has, far from depressing the nation, awakened among all sections of the population a greater sense of initiative and responsibility.

Potentialities of Pakistan

Both the human and the natural resources of Pakistan hold great potentialities for her continuous development in every direction. In the words of a competent authority, the independence of Pakistan was accompanied by four great advantages: "It had an active and robust people, a compact and stable political structure free from fissiparous tendencies, adequate food supplies, and a favourable trade balance."[1] Indeed the psycho-physical characteristics of the people, social-ogical structure of the nation, and the potential economy of the state, are the pillars of Pakistan's strength and independence.

Pakistan is most favourably endowed with human resources. It has a far more healthy, strong, and vigorous population than the sister dominion of India. Western Pakistan has the most sturdy and enduring peoples in the whole of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent. Sindhis, Punjabis, Pathans and Baluchis are all strong and sturdy races, known for their inherent qualities of courage, bravery and endurance. The bright sunshine and invigorating air make Western Pakistan, particularly in the winter, one of the healthiest spots in the world. The Bengalese nationals of East Pakistan, while less

[1]Observation of Sir Archibald Rowlands, former financial advisor to Mr. Jinnah, the late Governor General of Pakistan, quoted from his recommendation in View on Pakistan, Pakistan Information Service, Vol,2. No.18, Government of Pakistan, Karachi, p. 4.

favoured with their physical constitution due to tropical climate, are known for their intelligence, initiative and resourcefulness.

As a nation, Pakistanis have a great unity and homogeneity. Absence of the caste system and the cumbersome joint family institution gives them a greater spirit of individual freedom and a keen sense of social equality. National independence has given them unity of purpose and the tremendous difficulties they face have increased their sense of common responsibility. The democratic Islamic ideals of social justice and universal brotherhood have inspired the majority community with feelings of goodwill and neighborliness towards the minorities who have all joined hands to form a common nationhood for the freedom and prosperity of Pakistan. Among the majority community itself, the great unifying force amidst the diversities of race, language and physical environment, is its common culture and civilization. Islam has given them a single social, ethical and legal code and moulded them into a single brotherhood.

Among the material assets of Pakistan are its potential harbours, perennial irrigation, surplus grainary, money crops, coastal fishing grounds, domestic animals, numerous waterways, presence of petroleum, its potential water power resources and natural frontiers. Pakistan is a food surplus area, the bread basket of the whole Indo-Pakistan sub-continent. She holds the world monopoly of jute which can help her to hold a credit balance even in the hard currency areas. It is, therefore, not surprising that with all its disrupted economy, due to the partition plan, the first national budget of Pakistan was a surplus budget.

Problems in Pakistan

Pakistan is a young state and will have to struggle against tremendous odds for some time to come. She has surmounted some immediate obstacles but the nation must maintain its present vigour and vitality, and advance with vision, courage and sound planning to build up a sound future. Pakistan's problems are threefold: those arising out of partition; those attendant upon the achievement of independence; and those lingering on as a legacy of past British rule.

1. **Problem of Refugees:** The most crucial problem arising out of the partition plan, is the heavy influx of refugees into Pakistan. More than six millions of Muslim refugees have entered Pakistan from the Indian Dominion as compared to three to four millions of Hindus and Sikhs who have gone over to the Indian Dominion. But while the bigger Indian dominion can absorb its refugees, the comparatively smaller state of Pakistan has great difficulties in the rehabilitation of the overwhelming number of refugees. With sacrifice and courage, the refugees in Pakistan have been provisionally distributed in various areas, but their permanent rehabilitation in accordance with their needs and capabilities requires sound planning for this huge resettlement. A wise settlement policy is essential for ensuring a sound economic and social structure of Pakistan; in its absence a haphazard distribution, without any regard to the psychological and sociological characteristics of the refugees as well as the local areas, will be a source of permanent conflict and confusion.

2. **Reconstruction of Local Economy:** With this mass migration that has resulted from partition plan, local economy of some of the Pakistan areas has been seriously disrupted. Vigorous administrative efforts are needed to rebuild the local areas. This problem can be effectively solved only by strengthening the local initiative and local responsibility and by a proper settlement of the refugees in the local areas with local cooperation.

3. **National Solidarity:** As against the strong factors of unity of purpose, unity of culture, and strong bonds of brotherhood, there are the forces of provincialism which are being strengthened by a kind of psychological propaganda carried on by the subversive elements within Pakistan and by the enemies from outside. Only by minimizing the interference of Central Government with the provincial affairs can the resentment within provinces be minimized. By guarant-eeing the principle of provincial autonomy, provincial unrest could be stamped out.

But a merely constitutional approach cannot solve the problem. There could be a positive approach to encourage a mutual understanding of inter-provincial problems. Steps towards this mutual understanding can be effectively taken only by a voluntary initiative of the representatives of the provinces themselves and not by interference from the Central Government. Secondly, the influx and distribution of refugees without any regard to the cooperation of the local areas is a potential source of this provincial conflict. Agencies of social work, peace and harmony must be set up to minimize these frictions. The best settlement policy can be worked out only by the Province which settles the refugees with the cooperation of the local areas. Only by an alert attention to the basic problems of inter-provincial harmony and by a positive and constructive approach to their solution can the authorities in Pakistan strengthen the foundations of national solidarity. A constant vigilance and a positive approach is most essential at this formative stage of nationhood.

4. **Problem of Defence:** The most crucial problem attending the national independence is that of national defence. As a matter of fact, the responsibility of guarding the whole of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent from any land attack, rests on the shoulders of Pakistan. Flanking on the East and the West,[1] the two parts of Pakistan are the vanguards of the sub-continent. Apart from this, the independence of Pakistan rests to a great extent on a satisfactory solution of the Kashmir problem. An alien power controlling Kashmir can control the water sources of Western Pakistan and starve it to death. The defence of Eastern Pakistan, one of the most strategic areas in the Southern Asia, remains to be greatly strengthened. Independence and freedom of Pakistan rest on her own formidable strength and on a high level of diplomacy to maintain friendly relations with the neighbouring countries.

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[1] Vide Chart I.

5. **International Responsibility:** With national independence Pakistan has become a member of the United Nations and maintains diplomatic relations with a number of countries. Her representatives to the United Nations and its international agencies have, by their leadership, won a place of prestige for Pakistan in the family of nations. Her foreign diplomats have shown good statesmanship and extended friendly relations of Pakistan with other countries. But Pakistan is a young nation and needs greater understanding of international problems. She needs able diplomats and intelligent national public opinion to shoulder international responsibilities.

6. **Problem of Industrialization:** As a result of the British policy of treating the Indian sub-continent as a single economic unity, the industries were concentrated in a few exclusive areas, which, under the partition plan, lie outside of Pakistan territories. Industrialization of the territories now comprising Pakistan was neglected during the British period although raw materials and power resources were available in plenty, along with vast reserves of manpower. At the time of national independence Pakistan had only a small group of textile factories, twenty iron and steel foundries and twenty-six railway workshops. Therefore, industrialization is the most crucial problem of Pakistan, particularly since she had to start with almost nothing. Industrial surveys have been made and the plans formulated. Some industries are already under construction. But tremendous efforts and sacrifices are needed to make Pakistan a self-sufficient state, and a network of important industries is essential for her national economy and national strength. Pakistan has a unique opportunity to avoid the mistakes and blunders from which some of the industrialized areas are badly suffering. Only with vision and sound planning can the new process of industrialization be completed without any injury to the future wealth and welfare of the nation.

7. **Improvement of Agriculture:** Pakistan is predominantly an agricultural country. At present eighty per cent of the population lives on agriculture. There is the problem of

improving the methods of agriculture on one hand and reducing the amount of the dependence upon agriculture alone, on the other. There is a tremendous need for improving and extending the irrigation system, introducing modern methods of agriculture, and organizing a network of marketing centers. At present, there are only forty-four million acres of workable land lying waste.[1] Thus, the agricultural potential could be increased by more than fifty per cent of the present, if the irrigation system were fully extended. Dependence on raw agricultural products can be reduced by organizing small agricultural industries, and by an extensive development of cottage industry.

8. **Improving the Condition of the Masses:** During the colonial period little attention was paid to ameliorating the condition of the suffering masses who constitute the main bulk of the enormous population. They labour under abominable living conditions. Pakistan was established through the unanimous support and the tremendous sacrifices of her masses. The Pakistan Government owes its first obligation to them. Measures for improving the condition of the masses have already been outlined. But it will need the greatest administrative efforts to raise the standard of living of the millions of the population. There is an acute need for intensive effort at village improvement and rural uplift: to extend the benefit of health and sanitation to the villages; to improve their housing conditions; to distribute grain and food products evenly to all the areas; to secure the farmer and the ordinary villager against the molestation of the landlords and the bureaucratic official class; in short there is the task of banishing hunger, disease, and tyranny from Pakistan. This is the most crucial problem of the real defense of Pakistan. Strength of Pakistan lies in the health and the happiness of her masses. However, nothing can be achieved unless ignorance and illiteracy are wiped out.

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[1] **Pakistan** : Issued by the Embassy of Pakistan, Washington, D.C., 1948, p.7.

9. **Problem of Education in Pakistan:** One of the worst legacies of the British rule is that eighty per cent of the population of Pakistan is illiterate. The basic problem of national reconstruction, therefore, is the education of the masses. Progress of Pakistan will be short–lived, her potentialities will be of little use, and her numerous problems can not be solved satisfactorily unless her people have the minimum amount of education necessary to discharge their minimum civic responsibilities. Pakistan cannot maintain her indepe-ndence if the nation remains ignorant and illiterate.

This basic need of the national reconstruction was realized on the achievement of national independence (August 1947) and first Pakistan Educational Conference met three months after that, to consider the problems of the national system of education. Besides many other proposals, the Conference resolved "that free and compulsory primary education for a period of five years" be introduced in Pakistan. By now a beginning has already been made in each province, and free and compulsory primary education has been introd-uced in numerous areas throughout the country. Some of the other important proposals of the Conference have also been implemented. A Central Advisory Board of Education, a Council of Technical Education, and an Inter-University Board have been set up, and these agencies are now working on various interrelated problems of national education.

However, in the federation of Pakistan, educational planning and reorganization is to be the responsibility of each autonomous province. As briefly described above, each province has its own needs and problems, its own peculiar social, economic and political structure. In order to deter-mine the kind of education needed in each province, it will be essential to understand the province and its people, their past history and socio-cultural traditions, their present hopes and aspirations, and their potentialities and problems.

At the present stage, this much is certain: the new type of education in Pakistan is to be national in content and character and closely related to the needs of the people of each province and of the nation as a whole. New teachers must, therefore, be prepared to impart this new type of national

education in every province. The new national education must basically improve the condition of our society by meeting the needs and solving the problems of its people. This chapter has attempted to provide a broad perspective of the overall national problems and the particular needs of each province. The new educational reorganization in each province of Pakistan must be carried out in terms of these needs and problems, as well as in terms of the society taken as a whole. But in order to make the new education truly national in content and character it must be founded upon our own educational heritage. Chapter II, therefore, deals with the heritage of educational traditions of our Islamic Society.

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Chapter II

A GENERAL SURVEY OF THE BACKGROUND, SCOPE AND CONTENT OF THE INDO-ISLAMIC SYSTEM OF EDUCATION DURING THE PRE-BRITISH PERIOD

A new educational reorganization in Pakistan must harmonize the best from the past with the present for the future progress of the country. A sound understanding of our own educational heritage must provide the foundational base on which to build up a new educational structure incorporating the best that the modern Western or Eastern system of education can offer. Our present British-imposed system of education is foreign in content and method and is wholly unsuitable to the genius of our people. But we cannot abolish it wholesale. We can make the best of it by articulating it to our own educational heritage. This articul-ation is essential to bridge the vast gap which exists between the national aspirations and the foreign ideology of the present system of education.

Public opinion in Pakistan has already swung in this direction. The Pakistan Educational Conference at Karachi which concluded its important session on December 2, 1947 "resolved that the educational system in Pakistan should be inspired by Islamic ideology emphasizing among many of its characteristics those of universal brotherhood, tolerance and justice".[1] In order to understand a few more among "many of

[1]Proceedings of the Pakistan Educational Conference: Government of Pakistan, Ministry of the Interior (Education Division), Karachi, 1948, Resolution No.7, p. 44.

its characteristics" besides those broad humanitarian and democratic ideals, a general acquaintance with the educational tradition in the Islamic society is essential. The knowledge of our educational past is also necessary in order to see the present educational system in a better perspective. An attempt will, therefore, be made in this chapter to make a brief survey of the theory and practice of Islamic education in general and that of the Indo-Islamic system in particular. A cross section of the theory and practice of both the education in general and the professional education of the teachers will be provided. The treatment will not be exhaustive but merely representative of what is best and most useful in our own educational heritage for the purpose of reconstructing a new national system of education in Pakistan.

By strengthening the historical and cultural foundations of the new education, we can give a continuity to our educational tradition. The nation's educational heritage must provide the foundation, on which to build up a new educational system, incorporating the best that the modern Western and Eastern systems of education can offer. As the main responsibility of the prospective teacher and administrator in Pakistan must be to create and implement this new synthesis in educational theory and practice, it is essential to explore its antecedents and conceptual possibilities.

A. Education in General

The Origin of Education in the Islamic Society

The Indo-Muslim system of education prevailed throughout India as a whole for the eight hundred years prior to the British conquest. The foundations of this system were laid during the early emergence of the Islamic Society. The teachings of the Prophet Muhammad (Sal'am) and the commandments of the Quran revolutionized a new Islamic society in Arabia. It will be easy to understand the tremendous educational advancements that this hitherto completely illiterate and Bedouin people made, if we under-stood what Islam meant to them. The new Islamic society was literally pledged to the recognition of one God and to the strict obedience to His commandments as revealed in His Book, the

Some of the famous Islamic Universities and Centres of Higher Learning During the Medieval Period (7th to 14th Century A.D)
Chart – III

1. Madina	11. Valencia
2. Mecca	12. Almaria
3. Basrah	13. Valladalid
4. Kufah	14. Salamanca
5. Baghdad	15. Barcelona
5. Damascas	16. Saville
7. Cardava	17. Qairwan
8. Granada	18. Cairo
9. Toledo	19. Daibul
10. Malaga	20. Mansurah
	21. Multan
	22.Jurjan
	23. Ray
	24. Merv
	25. Bukhara
	26. Samarqand
	27. Balkh
	28. Naishapur
	29. Ghaznah
	30. Hirat
	31.Shiraz
	32.Ispahan
	33.Tabrez
	34.Antakiya

Quran. It became their sacred duty to practice in life what was revealed in ***The Book***. This was done through the leadership of the Prophet whose words and actions provided an example and also supplemented the Revelation.

From an educational point of view it is important to note that **the whole attention of the new society was now centered on the Book**, of which the very name, "Quran" (literally, "reading")indicated the importance of **reading.** How the Quran as the word of God, and the Hadith as the word of the Prophet gave impetus to a vigorous educational activity and provided content and meaning for it may become clear from some of the following important educational ideas contained in them, and also widely referred to throughout Islamic literature.

The educational ideas of the Quran which became the source of educational activity were:

a) The very first word of the first revealed command-ment in the Quran, was "read" (**iqra**), and then it stated, "Read in the name of your Lord…… Who gives knowledge by means of pen. Who gives man knowledge of what is unknown to him.

b) The Quran emphasized the superiority of the human being over the whole creation **on the basis of his knowledge of things**. Through a parable it was clearly stated that Adam was superior to angels because of his knowledge of things. Knowledge was essential for man since the whole of the universe was subjugated to him and existed for his sake.

c) Knowledge with faith, understanding, and insight was emphasized by illustrating the factual knowledge: **Men with mere factual knowledge are compared to "donkeys carrying heavy loads of books, all in vain."**

d) Constant thinking, scrutiny of the physical nature, and explorations in the human world were stressed with constant refrain throughout the Quran. The Prophet further emphasized the role of education in his own words (Hadith) and declared that "The search for knowledge is obligatory on every man and woman", thus emphasizing the equal need of education for both sexes. But, since the position of women had not been fully recognized in early societies, he particularly insisted on the

education of women. **The Sahih**, the authentic book of Bukhari (d.870 A.D) on the "sayings" of the Prophet, contains one whole chapter on the education of women.

e). He emphasized the continuous and ever-growing role of education throughout a person's life, declaring: "Seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave"; that "He dieth not who taketh to learning", and that "He who dies seeking knowledge dies a martyr."

f). He further enjoined: " Seek knowledge even though it be in China", thus broadening the concept of education from a narrow sectarian or national one to universal, international and all inclusive education. Knowledge must be acquired even though it is through foreign language like Chinese and through foreign teachers.

g). He explained further that acquisition of knowledge was not only a sacred religious duty but was also an indispensable equipment for the development of a whole-some personality for participation in social life, and for the strength of the community life. He said: "Acquire knowledge because he who acquires it in the way of the Lord performs an act of piety; who speaks of it, praises the Lord; who seeks it, adores God; who dispenses instruction in it, bestows alms; and who imparts it to its fitting objects, performs an act of devotion to God. Knowledge enables its possessor to distinguish what is forbidden from what is not; it lights the way to heaven; it is our friend in the desert, our society in solitude, our companion when bereft of friends; it serves as an armour against our enemies. With knowledge, the servant of God rises to the heights of goodness and to a noble position; associates with sovereigns in this world, and attains to the perfection of happiness in the next.

h). He further emphasized that: "No present or gift of a parent out of all the gifts and presents given to a child is superior to a good liberal education". "That a man gives a liberal education to his child is better for him than that he gives a large measure of corn in alms".

j). That "he who favours learning and the learned, honours me", and that "the ink of the scholar is more holy than the blood of the martyr." "To listen to the instructions of science and learning for one hour is more meritorious than

attending the funerals of a thousand martyrs: more meritorious than standing up in prayers for a thousand nights".

Such basic educational commandments of the Quran supplemented by the teachings of the Prophet, sent the members of the new Islamic society in search of education. For, to be a Muslim meant obeying the words of God and the words of the Prophet.

Development of Higher Education

Within the last decade of the Prophet's life (622-632 A.D) Mecca and Medina became the centers of learning and of the learned assemblies. About a decade later, the towns of Basrah and Kufa, in Iraq, originally military out-posts began to emerge as centers of higher education. During the next two or three centuries, with the extension of the Islamic dominions, collegiate and university-type institutions were founded in almost every country in the Eastern and the Western parts of the empire: Mecca and Medina in Arabia; Damascus in Syria; Basrah, Kufa and Baghdad in Iraq; Merv, Ray, Naishapur and Herat in Persia; Samarqand and Bukhara in Transexiana; Cairo in Egypt; and Cardova, Granada, Toledo, Seville and other universities in Spain.[1]

In these universities, not only educational ideas were developed but the foundations were laid of many modern physical and social sciences, heralding the era of our modern scientific civilization.[2] At the university of Malaga in Spain, a favourite inscription over the collegiate portal ran thus: "The world is supported by four things only: the learning of the wise,

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[1] See Chart III.

[2] The West knows them as "Arabic" or "Moorish" sciences. Ordinarily one recognizes only such Arabic names as Al-Chemy and Al-Gebra, or, thinks of Medicine and Greek Philosophy which were transmitted through the Arabic writings and institutions to Medieval Europe. Due to a limited knowledge of Arabic and Persian languages, almost all of the important contributions of Islamic scholars in the field of the social sciences like education, sociology, politics, psychology and anthropology have not yet been brought to light by modern research. Comparatively, much has been written on the contributions of Arabo – Islamic scholars (usually but wrongly called Arabs; for they were neither all Arabs, nor all their contributions limited only to the Arabic language) in the field of natural sciences, medicine, philosophy, mathematics, history and geography.

the justice of the great, the prayers of the righteous and the valour of the brave".[1] These and other institutions produced scholars who were juris-consults, imams (leaders), lawyers, traditionalists, grammarians, geographers, poets, philosophers, lexicographers, philologists, writers on natural history, compilers and editors of works on prose and poetry, scientists and encyclopedists. They also supplied the state with statesmen and generals, with officials for different departments, the court, the treasury, the tribunals of justice, the post office, etc., and graduates who practiced law, worked as professors, or became theologians.

Referring to the universities of Spain, John Draper remarks:

> **At these places, during the eleventh century, when, in the Christian schools of the East and West alike, learning was at a very low ebb, the Muslims were teaching arithmetic, geometry, trigonometry, physics, astronomy, biology, medicine, surgery, logic, metaph-ysics and jurisprudence. These Moorish institutions were colleges in the literal sense, for the students lived in them together with the professors and through them the highest spirit of culture and investigation flouri-shed. The sciences were greatly advanced. Many inventions and discoveries were made, and practical achievements, like navigation, exploration, commerce and industries were developed.**

Hence Draper is naturally led to "deplore the systematic manner in which the literature in Europe has contrived to put out of sight our scientific obligation to the Muhammadans."[2]

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[1]Hitti, Phillip K.: History of the Arabs, Macmillan and Co., London, 1937, p. 563.

[2]Drapper, John William : History of the Intellectual Development of Europe, Rev. Ed., Harper & Bros., New York and London, 1899, Vol.II, p.42.

The well-informed modern Western scholars, however, are beginning to explore these early foundations of modern scientific thought and research.[1] Randall has frankly stated that:

In the midst of this enlarging geographical world the men of the middle ages turned to the scientific knowledge they found in the learned libraries, and universities of the Arabs.....from Spain came the first knowledge of the great writings of Aristotle; but the Moslems had also salvaged from the ancient world some things in which Aristotle for all his genius was totally deficient, mathematical and mechanical science ... and in Spain in the tenth century they created a civilization in which science had ceased being mere lore and had been applied to the arts and crafts of the practical life. All in all, they stood in the Middle Ages for the type of scientific thought and scientific industrial life which we have come to associate with modern Germany. Unlike the Greeks they did not disdain the laboratory and patient experimentation; and in medicine, mechanics, and indeed in all the arts, they seem naturally to have bent science to the immediate service of human life, instead of preserving it as an end in itself. From them Europe easily inherited what we like to call the "Baconian" spirit of "enlarging" the bounds of human empire over nature."[2]

Institutional Structure and Organization of Curriculum

Educational practice in the Islamic society was different in different countries at different periods. In the same country it varied in every part, and in each institution. Therefore the educational terminology describing both the institutional structure and the curriculum organization had a different significance in different countries, although it was basically common to many places. Since educational terminol-

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[1]For detailed references to the scientific contributions of the Muslims see the monumental work of George Sarton : Introduction to the History of Science (Three Volumes), Carnegie Institute of Washington, 1927-47.

[2]Randall, J.H., Jr.: The Making of the Modern Mind, Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1940, p. 208.

ogy is also the best index of educational practice as well as educational psychology and educational philosophy, some of the broad features may be briefly described at this point.

Elementary schools became widely known as ***Maktab*** or ***Kuttab*** and the institutions of higher education came to be known as ***Madrasah*** and ***Jam'ia***. Madrasah imparted combined high school and college education, and often included instructions for the lower stage of graduate work and, therefore, was often a university-type of institution, particularly ***al-Madrasat al-'Aliyat*** or the Higher Madrasah. ***Jami'as*** were the institutions of higher education providing both the college and the university education. There were other higher institutions for special and higher research which were given names such as ***Dar-al-Hikmah***,[1] or the school of Research, ***Dar-al-Ilm*** or the School of Science and Learning, and ***Dar-al-Sina'ah***, or the School of Technology.

The difference in the educational terminology in different countries also reflects different meanings in the differing educational philosophies. The curriculum became variously known as ***dars***, meaning a " study"; ***nisab***, meaning a "fixed set-up"; ***minhaj***, meaning a "course or process"; and ***barnamah*** or ***barnamij***, meaning a "projected program or plan." Broad divisions of knowledge were either as (i) the Transferred Sciences (Socio-religious studies) and the Rational Sciences; (ii) or as the Sciences of Ideas and the
Sciences of Elements; (iii) or as the Divine Sciences, the Natural Sciences, and the Sciences of Measurement.[2] The terminology of teacher education and teacher certification will be dealt with later on. Suffice it to say that the Science of Education was highly developed in the Islamic Empires long before the periods of Reformation and Renaissance in Europe.

[1]**"Hikmah"** meaning literally "wisdom" was commonly applied to philosophy and medicine – but its educational significance was that of higher scientific research. **Dar-al-Hikmah,** founded by Abbasid Caliph Mamun (813 – 833 A.D) was an academy of sciences where specialists carried on research in all fields of sciences, utilizing every available source of information through Greek, Persian and Sanskrit works.

[2]That is, as (i) **al-'ulum al-naqliyya wa al-'ulum al-'aqliyya;** (ii) **of al-ulum al-adyan** wa al-ulum al –**abdan;** (iii) or, as **illahi, tabi'i and riyazi.**

The Introduction of Islamic Education in India

The extension of the Islamic Empire in India introduced these educational traditions in this Eastern sub-continent. The educational gains were first consolidated in Sindh, which became an integral part of the Arab Empire in 711 A.D. During the next two centuries, under the Abbasid Caliphate of Baghdad, when universities and institutions of higher education were founded in every part of the Empire, the cities of Mansurah, Daibul, Sehwan and Multan became the centers of higher education in Sindh.

During the three hundred years of the Arab rule in Sindh (711–1000 A.D.) education seems to have been widely diffused in all the parts of Sindh, with the result that the gap between the different spoken dialects of Sindh was minimized and a common provincial language, "Sindhi" emerged as a medium of thought and expression side by side with the Arabic. The Arab Governors of Sindh extended their special patronage to the development of the native language. Great impetus was given to technical education, and local industries were greatly encouraged. General education of the workers and technicians is evident from the fact that the plumbers would inscribe thought provoking verses on the house walls and the shoemakers would decorate the sandals and slippers with lovely verses from Arabic in order to facilitate their sale abroad and capture the markets of Baghdad and other Arabo-Islamic countries. Higher research in the field of literature was carried on by translating Arabic works into the Indian languages and Sanskrit works into Arabic. In the field of sciences, there is evidence of historical research, geographical explorations, astronomical calculations as well as zoological observations of animals and certain species of fish in the Indus.[1]

The Beginnings of Indo-Islamic Education

This early Arab rule, however, was limited to Sindh territories in the North-Western part of India. The foundations

[1]In this paragraph are summarized some results of the author's research on the subject of "The History of Sindh under the Arabs" (mss.).

of the greater Indo-Islamic power were laid by the emperors of Ghazna and Ghur in the 11th century A.D. when research, scholarship and education were at their zenith in the Islamic world of the Middle East and Central Asia. Mahmud of Ghazna who established his power in Northern India (988–1020 A.D.) is generally famous for his military exploits. But he was a great patron of poets, philosophers, and research scholars in every field, and they thronged to his court. His capital, Ghazna, had probably, even before him, become a seat of learning and possessed renowned libraries[1] ever since its early conquest (661 A.D.) under the Arab Empires. He himself founded a university of which the famous poet philosopher Unsuri became the rector.[2] His conquest of India opened a new field of research for his famous scholars and historians. The most renowned scholar al-Beruni started his laborious researches into all aspects of Indian life and incorporated them in his monumental work "India," which remains unsurpassed as an authentic and comprehensive research work on the Hindu life and culture. Al-Beruni also revised the important astronomical works of Hindu scholars, and extended his research into geography and mineralogy. The historians of the Ghazna court completed the first historical work on India, which was brought into direct contact with the scholars, philosophers and educational institutions of the whole Islamic world.

This initial establishment of the Indo-Islamic power, which was accompanied by high traditions of scholarship, investigations and research, soon after its extension and consolidation in the whole of India, produced educational standards and a scholarly atmosphere which were unparalleled both in quantity and quality in any other Eastern or Western country at that period. During the Pre-Mughul period (1100–1500 A. D.) and particularly under the Sultanate Period,

[1]A very interesting and by no means unauthentic account of the library of Ghazna is given by Flaccus Albinus Alcuinus of Britain, Abbot of Canterbury, who visited Ghazna in the last quarter of the 8th century and stayed there for three years translating "The Book of Jasher" from an original mss. in Hobrew, preserved in the city library. (Vide Alcuinus' account in the beginning of 'The Book of Jasher." 3rd edition, San Jose, California, 1947).

[2]Sufi, G.M.D.: Al-Minhaj: Being the Evolution of Curriculum in the Muslim Educational Institutions in India, Lahore, 1941, p.12.

thousands of elementary schools (**maktabs**) and hundreds of colleges (**madrasahs**) were established both under the State and under private patronage. Delhi, Multan, Ucha, Lahore, Agra, Panipat, Sanbhal, Surat, Thatta, and numerous other cities in Behar, U.P., Bengal, and Deccan emerged as centres of higher education. The historian Berni records that the intelligentsia during the Sultanate period excelled even the best brains of Bukhara, Baghdad, Cairo, Damascus, Isphahan, and Tabrez–the famous Islamic universities of the Middle-East.[1] Students joined the Indian universities for higher education, and many scholars from the Middle-East and Central Asia sought positions at these centres of learning.

The Indo–Islamic system of Education During the Mughul Period

During the Mughul period (16th –17th centuries A.D.) the Indo-Islamic system of education reached its zenith. A new curriculum, suited to the conditions of Indian life was gradually evolved. Hundreds of schools and colleges were established in every part of the country through State support and private patronage. Big universities, important technical institutions, and a network of well-furnished libraries became the striking features of almost every province. There was hardly a prince of any importance whose name is not, in some way or other, connected with the opening of a school or a college during his reign.[2] "At its (education's) height the Indian Muslim Universities were thronged by thousands of students and a professor had often hundreds of hearers."[3] In fact the Indo-Muslim universities surpassed in many respects the older universities of the Islamic world.

[1]Jaffar, S.M.: Education in Muslim India: Being an Inquiry into the State of Education During the Muslim Period of Indian History (1000-1800 A.D) Published by S.Muhammad Sadiq Khan, Kissa Khani, Peshawar City, 1936, p.76.

[2]**Ibid,** p.9 For the Court patronage to education see Chapter VII-IX.

[3]Law, N.N.: Promotion of Learning in India During Mohammedan Rule (by Mohammedans), London, 1916, pp. 104 –5.

"The Mughul Court was the cradle of the sage and the scholar. It was renowned all over the Eastern hemisphere for its liberality; it provided patronage to scholars and philosophers from distant lands."[1] The content and the method of education were changed and improved to provide general and technical education. Sanskrit, which was previously a monopoly of the high caste Brahamin, was brought within the reach of the common men, both Hindu and Muslim. The study of Arabic, Sanskrit, and Persian provided a broad base for the cultural foundations of education. The curriculum was adjusted to the needs of the society with the declaration of the Educational Policy of the Emperor Akbar (1556-1605) that "none should be allowed to neglect those things which the present time requires."[2]

There is ample evidence to show the wide diffusion of vocational and technical education beginning with the Sultanate Period and reaching its zenith in quantity and quality during the Mughul Period. To quote Sufi's brief but pertinent account:[3]

> The words ***San'ah*** and ***Sina'ah*** stand for art and craft. The artist is an artisan too, for instance, the architect builder was a mathematician and an engineer. Calligraphy, illuminating, and miniature painting were the work of craftsmen. Sculpture under the section of carving was a craft like painting. The system of training was carried on by means of guilds that preserved, developed, and taught the trade. The apprentice found his master's workshop to be his school of art, and his direction coupled with practice and personal observation were the means of his success in the line he chose. No clear account reaches us of the state of technical instruction in India until we come to the time of Firuz Shah Tughluq. About 12,000 persons are reported by Shams-i-Siraj Afif (the

[1]Jaffar, S.M., **op.cit,** p. 113, after Tarikh-i-Ferozeshahi by Zia-ud-Din Barni.

[2]Vide, p.66-7 infra

[3]Sufi, Al-Minhaj: **op.cit.,** 46 – 47, 86 – 88.

> contemporary historian) to have been placed under the tradesmen and were taught mechanical arts. Thirty-six ***Karkhanas*** (factories) were maintained. On them, ***lakhs*** of rupees were spent every year. Each ***Karkhana*** was placed in charge of a ***Khan*** or ***Malik***. At the head of all of them was the general superintendent, Khwaja Abul Hassan. Royal orders were executed by the factories through the general superintendent. Any workman, out of employment, on being reported upon through police, was provided for in the royal Karkhanas or in the Secretariat, or the household of nobles, as the case might be.

According to Frishta (the historian), Mahmud Khilji of Malwa organized a department for the technical instruction of women in weaving velvet, and other varieties of cloth, sewing, needle-work and shoe-making.

During the Mughul period at about the end of the sixteenth century, the system of workshops...was expanded. Ab'l Fadl (official historian of Akbar) records more than a hundred offices and workshops each resembling a city or rather a little kingdom ... There were state factories at Lahore, Agra, Fatehpur, Ahmadabad, Burhanpur and Kash-mir (Srinagar) ... Skilful masters and workmen had immigrated from abroad and they taught the people an improved system of manufacture ... Masulipatam was famous for artisans skilled in calico printing ... We are not concerned with the details of articles given by Ab'ul Fadl, and other, but it appears that the artisan's workshop was the practical school for the apprentice, and requirement was mostly hereditary.

Thus, besides providing for vocational education in the educational institutions **so that none may "neglect those things which the present time requires,"** the system of technical educational institutions and workshops was widely extended during the reign of the Emperor Akbar, providing effective education in all the industrial arts. Bernier who visited India long after Akbar during the reigns of the Emperors Shah Jehan (1627-1656 A.D.) and Aurangzeb (1656-1707 A.D.) found these technical workshops in full swing:

Large halls are seen in many places called Karkanays (karkhanas) or workshops for its artisans. In one hall embroiderers are busily employed, superintended by a master. In another you see the goldsmiths; in a third, painters; in a fourth, varnishes in lacquers-work; in a fifth, joiners, turners, tailors and shoemakers; in a sixth, manufacturers of silk, brocade, and these fine muslin of which are made turbans, girdles with golden flowers, and drawers, worn by females, so delicately fine as frequently to wear out in one night. This article of dress, which lasts only a few hours, may cost ten or twelve crowns, and even more, when beautifully embroidered with needle work.[1]

The unified curriculum from upper elementary to college, consisted of such graded subjects as: ethics, arithmetic, accounts, agriculture, geometry, mensuration, astronomy, physiognomy, household arts, the arts of administration and government, physics, logic, natural philosophy, abstract mathematics, divinity and history.[2] Thus, under the educational policy of Akbar, the curriculum encompassed both the cultural and the vocational education of the pupil.

The position of female education in the Islamic society has often been misunderstood by those who have had neither patience nor facilities to examine original Arabic works, some of which deal exclusively with women scholars, musicians, chroniclers, administrators, and social workers during the period of early Islamic empire. In the Indo-Islamic society, due to new socio-cultural influences, it became conventional not to refer publicly to the affairs of women as a matter of dignity and social etiquette. Hence there is a comparative lack of reference to the education of women in the works of the Indo-Muslim authors. This tempts one to conclude (erroneously) that the education of women was probably neglected in India, while the fact was that the home became the effective center of female education in the Indo-Islamic period and the education of women passed directly into the hands of women themselves.

[1]Bernier's Travels in Moghul Empire, Constable Co., Ltd., London, pp. 258 – 59.

[2]The Twenty – fifth section of the Cedex of Akbar (Ain 25, Ain-i-Akbari), which deals with education.(vide p.66-7 infra.)

References to female education are found in the accounts of foreign travellers. Ibn Battutah, the famous globe-trotter of Moracco, who served as a judge at Delhi for seven years (c.1335-1342) during the reign of Sultan Muhammad (1325-1351), while on his way to China as ambassador of the Sultan visited Hinawr in South India, where he saw in that single town thirteen schools for girls and twenty-two for the boys[1] established by the local Muslim ruler. During the Mughul period we know of Akbar's girls schools in the palace at Fatehpur Sikri. Therefore, despite the scanty information of these more reserved writers, it could be concluded with reasonable certainty that female education was widely diffused though it was strictly private in character, imparted at home, acquired through the interest and initiative of women, and its organization and control were invested in the hands of the women themselves. That it was definitely superior in quality is proved by the fact that it produced most distinguished women authors, poets, musicians, generals, and administrators who are the pride of the Indo-Islamic period. Mention may be made of Razia Sultana, who took the government of the empire into her own hands and later assumed personal command on the battlefield; Chand Sultana of Deccan, the most able administrator, general and linguist, as well as an accomplished musician; Gul Badan Banu Begum, the famous historian; Salima Sultana, niece of Humayun and a distinguished poet; Queen Nur Jahan, the policy maker during the reign of Jehangir; Mumtaz Begum, the heroine of the famous Taj; and Zeb-un-Nisa, the daughter of the Emperor Aurangzeb and a renowned poet and scholar.

During the Mughul period the administrative policies of the central government set a general administrative pattern for all the provinces within the Empire. The Emperor's generous patronage of learning and education naturally set an example for the provincial authorities to promote education within their jurisdiction. In every province of the Mughul empire, therefore, arose famous centers of higher education

[1]Ibn e Batutah: Travels in Asia and Africa (1325 – 1354 : translated by H.A Gibb, George Routledge and Sons, Ltd. London, 1929, Book II, p.230. See also: Travels of Ibn Batutah, Arabic text, al – Azhariyyah Press, Cairo, 1346 A.H(1928), Part II, p.110.

besides the elementary education which was widely diffused. The example could be cited of the educational conditions in a far–flung and isolated province of the Mughul Empire, such as Sindh. Captain Hamilton, an English merchant who visited Sindh (c. 1699 A.D) during the latter part of the Mughul Emperor Aurangzeb's reign, speaking of Thatta, the capital of Sindh, says:

> **The city of Tatta is famous for learning in theology, philosophy and politics and they have above four hundred colleges for training of youth in these parts of learning. I was very intimate with a Sayid who was a professor of theology and was reckoned a great historian. He asked me one day if I had heard of Alexander the Great in my country.**[1]

Captain Hamilton's authentic information shows that scope of educational facilities in the cosmopolitan capital of the province of Sindh was very wide. Moreover, there were other university centers all over the province, such as Matiari, Sehwan, Hala, Darbela, Deparja, Khuhra, Rohri, and Bakhar. These centers of higher education in this province produced scholars in the field of religion as well as renowned poets, philosophers, historians, politicians, secretaries, calligraphists, physicians and astronomers, some of whom gained great prestige at the Mughul Court at Delhi.[2]

Sorley

[1]Quoted by Sorley, H.T.: Shah Abdul Latif of Bhit, Oxford University Press, London, 1940, p.211.

[2]The accounts of the scholars of Sindh lie scattered in the pages of many historical works written either by the scholars of India or of Sindh. In the Sindh histories like Tarikh-i-Ma'sumi, Tarikh-i-Tahiri, and Tuhfat-al-Kiram, copious references are to be found. Among scholars of Sindh who had gained prestige at the Mughal Court may be considered such prominent men as: Mulla Ahmed of Thatta, the official historian and translator at the court of Akbar; Mir Ma'sum of Bakhar, the poet, historian and politician in the imperial diplomatic service of Emperor Akbar; and Shaikh Mubarak, the poet and scholar whose educational background was that of Sindh; Shaikh Mubarak's sons held the highest ranks during the reign of Emperor Akbar; Abul Fadl was the prime minister while his brother Faidi, the poet and the linguist, was the official translator of the Emperor.

Thus, the central government set an example for the provinces, both in educational and all other branches of public administration. The imperial government provided both the financial support and general leadership, wherever that was necessary. As an example of educational leadership, the Emperor Akbar's edict indicated the broad scope of the curriculum which an institution could adopt in terms of its own needs and the needs of its individual learners, although the edict also laid down as a basic principle that "no one should be allowed to neglect those things which the present time requires." Similarly, finding that old and obsolete teaching methods were being followed by the teachers in elementary schools, the edict also provided guidance for the improvement of teaching methods and directed that the teachers must adopt better methods of teaching.[1] this indicates that the central government was vigilant of the educational practices being followed in the nation's schools, and was providing the needed educational leadership in making improvements.

Apart from this overall leadership there is no evidence either during the Mughul period or at any other period of history that the education in the Islamic society was ever controlled by either the provincial or the central government. Education was essentially a community concern though it was a state responsibility. The state provided a part of the financial support and the overall leadership either by setting standards of scholarship and learning at the capital or by issuing directives on general educational policy.

During the Mughul period, however, we find a significant instance of direct interferences and control by the central government of the educational affairs of a local community in a province only when this particular community failed to discharge its local educational functions. This happened when the Borah community of the province of Gujrat failed to maintain a general level of education among its members that was probably required by the state. This fact being reported

[1]Vide Infra, pp. 66 – 67.

to the Emperor Aurangzeb, he directed the governor of Gujrat to take steps to improve the level of education in the whole province in general and in the Borah community in particular. In 1678 (A.D), the Emperor sanctioned enormous sums of money for the repair and recons-truction of the school and college buildings and also for giving financial help to all deserving students. He directed that forty-five more students be added to the existing list of students supported by Imperial grants, while the Emperor himself undertook to assist the students with daily stipends in proportion to their proficiency in the school work.[1] The students in elementary courses received a daily allowance of one or two annas, while those in advanced courses were given eight annas daily, and to students of higher classic work pecuniary aid was given separately.[2] All the state expenditure that went toward the education of the Borahs was charged against their community.

It appears that during the reign of the Emperor Aurangzeb each community was probably held responsible for the education of its children, up to certain minimum standard, for which the community was entitled to a share of state support. Since the Borah community had failed to discharge its educational responsibility, not only did the state interfere, and took over control, but it also decreed that: "as a penalty for an infringement of State rules the expense of education had to be borne by the Borahs themselves."[3]

B. Teacher Education

Teaching has been primarily considered as an essential religious duty in the Islamic society. However, Islam emphasized **the teaching of useful knowledge,** with emphasis not only on religious, but also on the secular -- any **new** knowl-

[1]Jaffar, S.M.: Education in Muslim India, pp. 100 – 101, after Ali Muhammad Khan, the official historian of Gujrat.

[2]Sufi, G.M.D.: Al Minhaj, pp. 63 - 64

[3]Sufi, G.M.D.: Al Minhaj, p.67

edge **useful** for human society. The conception of the Prophet in the new Islamic community was significantly that of a teacher. The Quran referred to his work essentially in educational terms: "He teaches you the Book and the profound practical thought ('hikmah') and "he teaches you the new knowledge."

Thus, the scope and function of teaching were defined in the Quran in such broad and comprehensive terms as the **Book**, the **Thought**, and the **Knowledge.** Firstly, the teacher was to teach the Book, that is, use the scriptures as the texts or any other instructional material in order to impart the religious and secular knowledge; secondly, the teacher was to develop the critical thinking, leading to profound wisdom and practical judgment; thirdly, the teacher was to guide in the fields of new knowledge, research and discoveries. Earlier the Arabs and later the international body of Muslims, acting upon these qualities of the teacher defined in the Quran, produced religious teachers, great humanists, savants, philosophers, scientists and professors who were the marvel of the age.

It may be emphasized at this point that no separate institutions were set up for the exclusive training of teachers but the practice of distinct professional preparation of teachers was fully evolved. The emergence of **teaching as a profession** took place during the lifetime of the Prophet, and, under his leadership. To teach gratis as a religious duty was highly commended but an appropriate reward for the service of the teacher became the general practice. According to the laws of war in those days, the prisoners of war were to be ransomed by a huge payment. But the Prophet set a precedent by setting free any prisoner of the opposing camp who could read and write and who would teach one Muslim how to read and write.

This was the first example of the highest consideration paid in return for teaching. The Prophet made every effort to diffuse universal education in the new Islamic community. Adult education methods were encouraged by him through mutual discussion. Once the Prophet, finding two persons discussing Islamic principles in the mosque, observed that it was a better form of prayer in which they were engaged. Adult education as such is traceable to ***Ashabu's Suffa*** (a group of teachers attached to the Prophet's mosque) where the Quran was taught. Here the day-workers gathered together at night to

attend to the study of the Quran.[1] Women teachers played their full part since there were many women who could teach others. There were a number of women in Mecca who were familiar with the art of writing in the time of the Prophet.[2] According to Abu Daud, the 'traditionist,' the Prophet himself appointed a teacher for his wife, 'Umm'l-Mu'minin Hafsah, to train her in the art of writing.

The Prophet organized a new body of competent teachers and sent them to Muslim communities in different parts of Arbia to impart not only verbal knowledge of Islam but to teach the arts of reading and writing. These teachers were to live not only in the communities, but as integral parts of them, and were to be supported by them. In the year 17 A.H (638A.D.) Caliph Umar strengthened this pattern of teacher organization and also entrusted the teachers with the responsibility of adult education. He sent teachers to all parts of the country and ordered the people (the adult population) to meet with them on Fridays in the Mosques.[3]This organization gave to the teaching profession a kind of adventurous spirit and mobility which has been a distinct characteristic of educational enterprise in the Islamic civilization, while the Mosques became the most effective centers of adult education.[4]

From the time of these early teachers whose efforts were concentrated on popularizing elementary universal education, to the time of renowned professors and scientists lecturing in the Islamic universities after about 150 years (9th century) and thereafter, the organizational structure of teacher education had been built up and was being improved and changed in different countries under different circumstances. As already pointed out, there were no separate schools for the training of teachers as we have them today. But there was in the schemes of general education, distinct procedure particularly aimed at the preparation of prospective teachers. The class

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[1] Sufi : Al – Minhaj, p. 45.

Goldizher 2

[2] Coldizher : Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics: edited by Hastings, Vol. V, p.198.

[3] Hitti, Phillip K.: Hisory of the Arabs, pp. 253 – 54.

[4] **Ibid.:** p.412.

teacher had the primary responsibility of singling out such talented pupils as would make the best teachers and giving them opportunities in the class to develop the teaching skill and a sense of the teacher's responsibility, under his supervision. This kind of pre-service training had at least four distinct professional elements in it, viz., observation, participation, practice teaching, and organization and management of class instruction. Many a talented teacher and prominent professor, through his own teaching experience, developed new methods of teaching and also wrote on some of the basic principles of educational philosophy and psychology.

In the hierarchical gradation of the teaching profession, the teacher of the elementary school (Maktab or Kuttab) came to be called ***mu'allim***, ***qari***, ***hafiz*** or ***akhund***. The one who taught the correct pronunciation of words and proper recitation became known as the ***hafiz*** or ***qari***. The woman teacher was called Mu'allimah or Mu'allimat-al-banat (the teacher of girls). Towards the west, in Morracco, she was known as ***faqihah*** or ***faqirah***.[1] The teacher of the secondary institution was called ***muaddib*** or ***mudarris***. The president or principal of a college or university was referred to as ***Shaikh*** or ***Imam***. The professor of a university was called ustadh or a scholar a'lim and a profound scholar and researcher as 'allamah. The teachers or scholars in special fields were differently designated as ***mufassir***, ***muhaddith, faqih, lughaviyyu, nahviyyu, sharih, muarrikh, filsifiyyu,*** etc., after the field of their specializations. Besides the regular teachers, there were the ***nassab*** and the ***qass***, who have no equivalents in the present educational hierarchy, but who are perhaps comparable to the modern journalists, though their position was in the academic field. ***Mutawalli*** and ***amil*** was the superintendent of the institution while ***nasir*** referred to the administrator.

In the professional hierarchy, the teachers of high schools and colleges were everywhere considered more important because higher education had a greater prestige value except in Spain where primary education was considered as the most important stage in education. Here "higher value was placed on the function of the elementary teacher than in

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[1] Sufi: Al – Minhaj, p.80

other lands of Islam".[1] However, education of the child was generally considered as delicate and important even in the eastern parts of the Islamic Empire. The Abbasid Caliph Harun-ul-Rashid (786-809) had himself instructed the tutor of his son al-Amin as follows:-

> **Be not strict to the extent of stifling his faculties or lenient to the point of making him enjoy idleness and accustom himself thereto. Straighten him as much as through kindness and gentleness, but fail not to resort to force and severity should he not respond.**[2]

Thus, even in those early days, the harm done by corporal punishment in destroying the learning abilities of the child was being realized, and the main emphasis was being placed on teaching the child by kind and gentle methods.

Theories of Education and the Ideas about Teaching and the Learning Process

With the growing concern to understand the nature of the learner, treatises were written on educational philosophy and educational psychology, in which theories of education and methods of teaching and learning were discussed. Ibn Tufail of Spain (d.1135 A.D) may be considered the first educational philosopher who set out to demonstrate through his philosophical novel, "Hayyu B.Yaqzan" (The Living One Son of the Vigilant One), that every individual has an inherent capacity to learn. Given a free environment, where he can make the full use of his senses, he is capable of the highest kind of learning. According to Ibn Tufail, an intelligent individual can, even without any human guidance, infer from natural phenomena the series of relationships operating in the human world and also the organic unity of the whole universe.

Al-Muberrad, the eminent teacher of Basra, defined knowledge as **that which can be functionally used.** Al-Ghazzali (d.1111 A.D) the rector of the Nizamiyya University of

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[1] Hitti, Phillip, K.: History of the Arabs, p. 562.

[2] Hitti , Phillip K.: History of the Arabs p. 409 after al – Masudi, Muruj-al-Dhahab, vi/321 – 2 and Ibn Khaldun, Muqaddamah, pp. 475-6.

of Baghdad, emphasized that the aim of all education was the development of self. According to Ibn Khaldoon (d.1406) the renowned philosopher and sociologist, the aim of education is right thinking. He points out that the right use of words and clear thinking go together....(and) advocates travel as a means of broadening "the student's outlook".[1] By consensus of opinion all the Muslim educators and philosophers agree that the only object of the knowledge is that it should be put to use for the advancement of human society and for strengthening of man's faith in God.

Burhan-ud-din Az-Zarnuji (1203A.D) for the first time touched the topic of educational psychology in his famous treatise entitled Instruction of the Student: The Method of Learning. He pointed out the distinction between knowledge and education – the former as a general quality of mind and the latter as a teaching and learning process. In Az-Zarnuji's own words: "Knowledge is a quality which illumines the mind and education provides insight into the secrets of learning and methods of treatment".[2] According to the Hanafi school of thought, to which Az-Zarnuji belonged, students differ in their abilities and, therefore, there should be a wide range of subjects and the teachers should guide the students to select a course of studies according to their individual tastes. This is observed in a statement of Zarnuji and his commentator who says: "The teacher knows what particular subject suits a student and what goes hand in hand with his nature, for natures differ one from the other, and jurisprudence suits one, the Arabic language appeals to the other."[3]

Az-Zarnuji's is the best known of some two score Arabic treatises on education, most of which have survived in

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[1] Sufi, G.M.D.: Al – Minhaj, p.44.

[2] Mohammad Abdul Mu'id Khan: The Muslim Theories of Education during the Middle Ages, Islamic Culture, XVIII, 1944(Hyderabad Deccan),p.421, Fn,1, after Zarnuji's treatise Talim-al-Muta'allim, Bombay ed., 1307 A.H, pp. 3-4,.

[3] Ibid., p. 428 after Commentary of Zarnuji's treatise, mss. in Osmania University, Hyderabad Deccan. Also Eng. Trans(Fn, 4 below). P.4.

manuscript form.[1] According to the English translators of Az-Zarnuji treatise, "we find Az-Zarnuji's reading interesting not only from the point of view of ethnology and culture history but from that of education and psychology as well."[2] In their introduction, the translators set forth the ideas of Az-Zarnuji on the "Dynamics of Learnings", as follows:

Az-Zarnuji is well aware that learning cannot be acquired only by mechanical aids and rules and regulations external to the drive, aspirations and feelings of the student himself. Ethical considerations play a large role in spurring the student on to acquire an education. But over and above the moral purpose in learning, Az-Zarnuji makes many observations of a more general nature. In the first place, the student must have some aspiration or goal toward which he aims, otherwise all the perseverance and repetitive study will be of no avail. Conversely, a high aspiration alone leads nowhere without assiduity. With this combination of interest and exertion, the student will get what he wants. If the student lets himself drift along without making an effort, he would soon find that he could not comprehend even an easy proposition.[3]

Besides, Az-Zarnuji also emphasized the social role of the student and teacher and the direct relation of the kind and amount of education to the success in vocation. "Az-Zarnuji suggests that the student should not over learn. He speaks briefly how each one should study enough to fulfil his 'station' or job successfully; if a man is a tradesman he should attain sufficient knowledge to become proficient in his business."[4]

The teachers in Muslim India had evolved their own theories of educational philosophy and psychology. The Emperor Akbar's edict to adjust education to the needs of the times and the Emperor Aurangzeb's conception of a broad general education have been mentioned in the previous section.

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[1]Hitti, **op. cit.,** p. 409. Khalil A. Totah has listed these treatises in "The Contributions of the Arabs to Education"(N.Y., 1926), pp.67-76.

[2]Grunebaum Von and Abel, T.: Az – Zarnuji: Talim al Muta'allim Tariq at – Ta'allum: Instruction of Student: The Method of Learning, Kings Crown Press, New York, 1947, p.2.

[3]**Ibid.,** p.10.

[4]**Ibid.,** vide pp. 4 and 5 – 6.

The most advanced ideas on educational philosophy and psychology were put forward by Shah Waliullah (1703-1762 A.D.), an eminent social and educational philosopher as well as one of the great teachers of his times, who flourished after the death of Emperor Aurnagzeb. He emphasized that the teachers should be professionally efficient and besides they should have a balanced personality and great breadth of mind; they should particularly have a sound social intelligence and a deep social insight in order to be able to give the right kind of leadership.[1]

According to Waliullah the agencies of education are three-fold: (i) environmental: circumstantial, social and family; (ii) individual teachers; and (iii) the state departments of education.[2] The efforts of these three agencies should enable the individual to develop his abilities naturally and without any distortion. That is, the child should grow up as a successful member of the society; should be capable of, and conscientious in his work for the improvement of the society so that it should progress to higher levels of evolution; and he should develop spiritually and acquire a consciousness of God and of the continuation of life hereafter.[3]

According to Waliullah, the individuals differ in their abilities and capabilities and hence the teachers as well as the parents should devise methods so that the inherent powers and potentialities of the child are fully developed. To explain in his words:

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[1]Waliullah Shah: al – Budur – al Bazighah, Arabic text, p.81

[2]**Ibid.,** pp. 72 – 75

[3]Metaphysics of Waliullah's Psychology and Sociology; Hujjat, Arabic text, pp. 12,17, 28 – 30, 49, 52 and al Budur (البدور البازغة) pp.18 – 20; 27 – 35. The author is indebted to Dr. A.J. Halepota, lately research scholar at Oxford University in England, for these references.

It is essential to take appropriate steps for his growth and development, such as devising light activities and avoiding harmful effects. Only when he (child) matures and is able to speak clearly, it is necessary to teach him the language and help him in clear expression. Develop-ment of good disposition and personal integrity will be most fruitful for future success. He should be helped to avoid extremes and develop wholesome personality. When this is accomplished, then it is essential to educate him in sciences which are useful to him in this life (practical studies) and hereafter (principles of faith).[1]

Such is the educational psychology and philosophy of Waliullah. He emphasizes the individual differences; the factors of growth and development and need for a proper guidance; the need for teaching the child according to his level of maturation and through light activities; the essential purpose of the educative process to develop the wholesome personality and character of the learner; and the need for devising the kind of study program for the individual pupil which will be actually useful to him in life. These psycho-logical principles explained by Waliullah in the first half of the eighteenth century are not much different from the discoveries of modern educational psychology.

The Teaching Methods and the Preparation of Teachers

Apart from the theories of educational philosophy and psychology, considerable achievements were made in the field of educational practice. Effective techniques of class organization and class instruction were evolved. ***Dars*** referred to the period of study or the time of class lecture. Subjects were differentiated as compulsory (***fard*** or ***fard-e-ain***), optional (***fard kifayah***), voluntary (***nafl***), and at the higher state equivalent to honours, as praiseworthy (***mustahab***).[2]

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[1] al – Budur al – Bazighah, Arabic text, p.64.

[2] Mohammed Abdul Mu'id Khan: **op.cit.,** pp. 428 – 9, the practice being common both to the Hanafi and the Shafai schools of thought.

Class instruction was fundamentally based on the concept of group work, class discussion, and a socializing relationship between the pupils and the teacher. ***Halqa*** or the circle, became the universal practice with regard to the seating arrangement in class, under which a face-to-face relationship between the pupils and the teacher, as well as between the pupils themselves was established for group discussion. The whole practice of class instruction from secondary to higher education was mainly adjusted to three basic purposes: to give each individual a maximum opportunity and to give the more gifted greater opportunity to participate in the teaching work, in order to enable them to test and develop their teaching abilities; to provide for group discussion among the pupils themselves; and to ensure a personal contact between each individual and the teacher, particularly in the field of higher education.

a) To achieve the first purpose, the student-assistant or the monitorial system was evolved. More gifted students won the recognition of the teacher and the group and were appointed to act as assistants to teachers or as class monitors. These assistants shared a part of teaching responsibility during the presence of the teacher and performed the leading role of the teacher in discussing the previous lecture with the group when the teacher was absent. They did the remedial work with the slow learners in the class and with the newcomers who joined the group. Some teachers developed this technique further and had more than one assistant for different functions. Thus, there were the ***mu'ides*** who would go over the previous lecture and discuss it with the class in the absence of the teacher. The others came to be known as ***muqris***, who at the time of a new lesson or lecture would read the text or state the problem and the teacher would give his views, comments and explanations, where-upon the whole group would join in discussion.

The lecturer had under him two or more repe-titeurs whose duty consisted in reading over the lecture after class and explaining it to the less gifted students. Ibn-Jubayr once attended a lecture delivered after the mid-

afternoon prayers by the ranking professor. The lecturer stood on a platform while the students sat on stools and plied him with written and oral questions till evening prayer.[1]

b). Lecture periods were so adjusted as to provide opportunities for group study and group discussion. The teacher took the minimum essential part of the time to give the lesson or deliver a lecture, and then the class was left to work together. It often divided into smaller groups and discussed the lessons. These discussions facilitated the exchange of ideas and a further explanation of the subject. The creative results of this cumulative group work have been recorded in the works of some of these early students, who later became authors and acknowledged in their works the useful points that had emerged in their group discussion with such reference as **dhukira ma' ba'd** or **dhukira ma' fulanin**, i.e., while discussing with so-and-so, or conversing with so-and-so.

Referring to this important technique of group work and group discussion, Heyworth-Dunne remarks:

> **Students studied together in pairs, threes and in small groups in order to check over their notes and to ask one another their questions on the lessons and to listen to one another's recitations of the text. The Shaik must have spent much time in preparing his lessons and the students in preparation and recapitulation, in order to allow for discussion on all sorts of questions mostly dealing with detail.**[2]

The two prominent schools of thought, the ***Hanafis*** and the ***Shafais***, both agreed on the importance of group work. Both held that the lectures should not be committed to writing unless they were fully understood. However, they differed as regards the method of group work. The Hanafi school laid

[1] Hitti, Phillip K.: History of the Arabs, pp. 410 – 11.

[2] Heyworth – Dunne, James: An Introduction to the History of Education in Modern Egypt, Luzac and Co., London, 1938,p. 40.

more emphasis on mutual discussion (***munazirah***) and debate (***mutarihah***) between the students, while the Shafais school preferred the principle of harmonious socialization and emphasized the quality of comradeship (***murafiqah***) between individuals. The leading motto of the Hanafi school was: "Think and understand" (***t'ammal wa tadarrak***). The Shafais emphasized accuracy and precision rather than more intellectual training.[1]

c). In the field of higher education when the student became capable of self-study and was likely to gain the most from his personal contacts with the professor, he ***lazama*** his teacher, that is, attached himself to the teacher. In this case, the function of the professor was exactly that of the student's major advisor in the modern educational institutions except that it was less formal and more intimate and extensive, covering the functions of both the modern tutorial and the seminar systems. For the student and the professor read and discussed together; the professor expressed his own views on the subject, acceptance of which depended on the student's own conviction; and finally they completed the projects of study together.

Since this kind of work needed much time and attention it was often continued in the professor's private seminar or library. A leading savant would conduct what may be termed as the post-graduate work in his own private house, or the Amir's ***haweli*** (large house). The imam's ***Hujra*** (sanctum) was often a place for seminar.[2] This whole process had its standardized terminology: the student ***qara*** **'ala** his subject, i.e., studied with, or ***hadara 'ala*** his project, that is, presented before his teachers; he ***akhadha'an***, that is, acquired the information (the theory, the viewpoint or the idea) from the teacher as his authority; and he **takharraj** ***behi fi***, that is completed with all essential requirements the project or his special study, **with the help of the teacher**.

There was no special examination by any external authority. The completion of study under the direct supervision

[1] Mohammed Abdul Mu'id Khan, **op. cit.,** vide p. 433 – 34.

[2] Sufi, G.M.D.: Al – Minhaj, **op.cit.,** p.34

of the teacher at the student's own pace entitled him to the recognition that he was competent to teach in that field of study and pronounce authoritative opinions on it. This recognition by the teacher was given in either an informal verbal statement, or a brief written statement, recognizing the student's competence in the field of his study. This was technically called ***Ijazah*** or ***Sanad*** (permission or certificate) and was the final testimony of the completion of the study or project under the teacher with recognized competency. "The higher grades of teachers were on the whole highly respected. They were evidently organized into a sort of guild, and the master would grant a recognized certificate (***ijazah***) to those students who satisfactorily passed the prescribed course of study under him."[1] As Sufi points out: "Though education was free, every man could not set himself up as a public teacher without ***ijazah*** or licence. This was granted by a ***Shaikh*** of admitted learning to be a competent scholar whose knowledge satisfied the Shaikh and whose personality appealed to him."[2] Ceremonies were also gradually evolved to accompany the occasion. Qazi Abu Yusuf, the Chief Judge and the Legal Advisor of Harun-al-Rashid (786-809 A.D.) devised the system of ***amamah*** and ***jubbah*** (the headwear and gown) for the teachers and the pupils, which soon became very popular throughout the Islamic empire and which, according to Daniel Haneberg, found its way to the European seats of learning.[3]

The Teaching Profession during the Muslim Rule in India

These methods of selection, preparation, and certification of teachers had been developed before the Muslim power was consolidated in India. By this time the educational institutions of the Islamic countries had already produced

[1]Hitti, Phillip K.: History of the Arabs, p.409.

[2]Sufi, G.M.D.: Al – Minhaj, **op, cit.,** p. 45

[3]Haneberg, Daniel: Abhandlung aber das Sohul – und Lehrwesen der Mohamedener in Mittelalter, Munich, 1850; vide Sufi, G.M.D.: Al-Minhaj, **op. cit.,** p. 45.

thousands of renowned teachers and professors.[1] Many of these scholars from various universities outside of India began to take their position in the growing universities of India. These Indo-Muslim universities eventually produced their own scholars and teachers, an index of whose names would comprise a separate volume.

A few references to the teaching profession during the Muslim rule in India may be cited here. Beginning with the early period, Sultan Balban staffed his newly-founded college at Delhi with brilliant professors. The historian Barni records the names of forty-six most renowned professors and authors of Sultan Alauddin Khilji's reign. Afterwards Sultan Feroze founded thirty new colleges and staffed them with paid professors of proved merit. "His peaceful reign enabled him to organize a regular system of public institutions and he sent out eminent teachers to take their permanent appointments in different parts of his dominions, and organized wide diffusion of education."[2] During the reign of Sultan Sikandar Lodi, the two great professors of Multan, Shaikh Abdullah and Shaikh Azizullah, made great contributions to educational theory and practice at their new posts in Delhi and Sanbhal respectively. Sheikh Abdullah soon established his reputation as the greatest teacher of his time. During his rectorship of the Sultan's college, he made important changes in the curriculum of higher education.[3] These references indicate the demand for new teachers and professors during the pre-Mughul period. Their availability and supply is a fitting tribute to the early Indo-Muslim educational institutions during 12th to 15th centuries.

Though teaching as a profession had already gained importance, it was during the Mughul period (1526-1707) that the profession of training teachers seems to have become an important feature of the educational system. The cultural

[1]Their lives, works, history of the institutions where they were taught, their renowned teachers as well as their brilliant pupils, and their theories of education and of knowledge have all been preserved to us in their own voluminous works, some of which are still in manuscript form.

[2]Jaffar, S.M.: Education in Muslim India, p.50

[3]Vide Sufi, G.M.D.: Al – Minhaj, pp. 32 – 33.

achievements of the Indo-Muslim society paved the way for important improvements in the theory and practice of education. For the first time in the history of Indian sub-continent, a common state language was recognized in Persian which was now studied both by the Hindus and the Muslims. Besides, Urdu emerged as the common popular language of the masses of India. A cultural synthesis was achieved which gave great impetus to social and educational reconstruction. During the reigns of the Emperor Akbar (1556-1605 A.D.) and Aurangzeb (1688-1707) important changes were effected in educational theory and practice. A new emphasis on improved methods of teaching contributed to the professional preparation of teachers.

The Emperor Akbar's educational policy consisted in a wide extension of education, adjusting the curriculum to the needs of the individual and the society, and a new emphasis on the change and improvement of methods of teaching. His most important contribution, however, was in the improvement of the curriculum and teaching methods. In accordance with this policy, the socio-cultural basis of education was strengthened by including Arabo-Persian and Sanskrit studies in the curriculum, which was also modified to enable each student to choose the courses suited to his own needs and abilities. Moreover, it was again emphasized that "none should be allowed to neglect those things which the present time requires," thus stressing the needs of the society on both the cultural and the vocational sides.

The introduction of such subjects as ethics, mathematics, accounts, agriculture, economics and the art of administration, in the curriculum shows that the main educational objective was the preparation of the youth for the practical needs of the life and living. But this objective could not be achieved successfully unless the teachers were competent. Hence a new educational policy for the improvement of teaching methods was formulated for the Emperor by his Prime Minister and educator, Abul Fadl, in the form of the following Imperial edict:

"In every country, especially in Hindustan, boys are kept for years at school, where they learn the consonants and vowels. A great portion of the life of the students is wasted by making them read many books. His Majesty orders that every

school boy should first learn to write the letters of the alphabet, and also learn to trace their several forms. He ought to learn the shape and name of each letter, which may be done in two days, when the boys should proceed to write the joined letters. They may be practised for a week after which the boy should learn some prose and poetry by heart and then commit to memory some verses to the praise of God, or moral sentences each written separately. Care is to be taken that he learns to understand everything himself, but the teacher may assist him a little. He then ought for some time to be daily practised in writing, a hemstitch or a verse, and will soon acquire a current hand. The teacher ought especially to look after five things: knowledge of letters, meanings of words, the hemstitch, the verse, the former lesson. If this method of teaching be adopted, a boy will learn in a month, or even in a day, what it took others years to understand. So much so that people will get quite astonished. Every boy ought to read books on morals, arithmetic, the notation particular to arithmetic, agriculture, mensuration, geometry, astronomy, physiognomy, household matters, the rules of government, medicine, logic - the **tabi i, riyazi** and **ilahi** sciences and history, all of which may be gradually acquired. In studying Sanskrit, students ought to learn Bayakaran, Niyai, Bedanta and Patanjali. No one should be allowed to neglect those things which the present time requires."[1]

This was the first official pronouncement on the techniques of teaching and, being the Imperial directive, it set a pattern for the professional preparation of teachers. After the Imperial directive, these teaching skills and techniques in all probability became the recognized aspect of the professional equipment of teachers in every part of the Mughul Empire. For, as a result of this directive, "the schools showed progress and the colleges became the lights and ornament of the Empire".[2] The results of this method were so successful that "Allamah Abdul Fezal praised himself on the fact that all civilized nations had schools for the education of youths; but

[1] Section 25 of the Cedex of Akber (Ain 25 of Ain-e-Akbari) quoted by Jaffar, S.M.: Education in Muslim India, fn. 18, p. 90. Also Blochmann's English Translation, ii/278 – 79.

[2] Sufi, G.M.D.: Al – Minhaj, p. 53.

Hindustan was particularly famous for its seminaries."[1]

One might view with suspicion the reference to memorization contained in the above method. But it ought to be recognized that in those days some memorization was essential to serve the purpose of ready reference in the absence of printed materials. The directive, on the other hand, recognized the psychological principle of assistance and guidance on the part of the teacher and the independent work on the part of the pupil, and also the need for a gradual progress on the part of the pupil, in accordance with his growth and maturity. Most important of all, this policy recognized the importance of elementary education and emphasized a more sensible and scientific method of working with the child.

Responsibility of the teachers undoubtedly became greater and greater during the Mughul period. The last great Mughul Emperor Aurangzeb's criticism of his own teacher shows that the teaching profession was on trial for its professional competence. Frances Bernier, a French physician, visited India during this period and attached himself to the retinue of Danishmand Khan, the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs at the Mughul Court. From Danishmand Khan himself Bernier heard the Emperor Aurangzeb's criticism of his teacher who had been addressed as follows by the Emperor at the time of his accession to the throne (1658 A.D.):

> **Was it not incumbent upon my preceptor to make me acquainted with the distinguishing features of every nation of the earth, its resources and strengths, its mode of warfare, its manners, religion, form of government and wherein its interests principally consisted; and by a regular course of historical reading to render me familiar with the origin of states, their progress and decline, the events, accidents, or errors owing to which such great changes and mighty revolutions have been effected? Far from having imparted to me a profound and comprehensive knowledge of the history of mankind, scarcely did I learn from you the names of ancestors, the renowned founders of the empire. You have kept me in**

[1] Jaffar, S.M.: Education in Muslim India, pp. 87 – 88.

> **total ignorance of their lives, of the events which preceded, and the extraordinary talents that enabled them to achieve their extensive conquests. A familiarity with the languages of surrounding nations may be indispensable in a king, but you would teach me to read and write Arabic and waste my time on the study of a language which required ten or twelve years of close application for proficiency, most of the time being spent on grammar and the acquisition of such knowledge as was required by a doctor of laws. The mother tongue as the medium of instruction was ignored. Valuable years were wasted on vain philosophy. On the other hand that philosophy should have been taught which adapts the mind to reason, satisfying it only with solid arguments. Lessons should have been imparted to elevate the soul and fortify it against the assaults of fortune, producing that equanimity which is neither insolently elated by prosperity nor basely depressed by adversity. Sublime and adequate conception of the universe and of the order and regular motion of its parts should have been given.**[1]

This statement of Aurangzeb, despite any possible misunderstandings on the part of Bernier,[2] sets forth the Emperor's ideas on the aims and objectives of education and the responsibility of the teacher: to develop a well-rounded personality in the pupil by adjusting the educational program to his personal needs as well as to the needs of his prospective position in life. Aurengzeb evidently believed in a broad general education -- a kind of education which would inspire initiative and self-confidence in the learner and enable him to face the crucial problems of his life.

[1] Sufi, G.M.D.: Al – Minhaj, pp. 65 – 66.

[2] Aurangzeb's criticism of the study of Arabic is falsified by the facts of the Emperor's life. Suzi has appropriately raised some doubts (p. 67). There is every possibility of misunderstanding on Bernier's part of Danishmand Khan's report. Bernier wrongly reports the name of the Emperor's teachers; moreover, Aurangzeb's views on Arabic are not convincing except that he may have criticized the method of teaching it.

The Emperor Aurangzeb was also sensitive to the progress of education in every community in every part of his dominions. This is evident from his direct intervention in the educational affairs of the province of Gujrat when the backwardness of the Borah community was reported to him. His policy of spreading education in each community could have been carried out only by the availability of a sufficient number of well-trained teachers. That Emperor Aurangzeb should have taken steps in securing competent teachers is supported by the fact that he appointed trained teachers to carry out the task of educating the Borah community.[1] But the Emperor still went further. In order to ensure the success of this educational endeavour, he enforced a system of monthly inspection, the results of which were regularly reported to him. This system of effective periodical inspection seems to be an original contribution of Emperor Aurangzeb to the practice of Indo-Muslim education.

Though the Emperors Akbar and Aurangzeb are most eminent for their original and important policies towards the education and teaching professions, other Mughul emperors also gave the same patronage and support to all the branches of education. The Mughul period significantly produced most prominent educators. For instance, Shaikh Mubarak was the teacher most noted for his breadth of knowledge and universality of learning; his sons and pupils, Faizi and Abul Fazl, were both great educators and scholars, the latter being the formulator of Emperor Akbar's educational policy for the improvement of teaching methods. Mirza Abdur Rahim Khan-Khanan, the renowned linguist was the tutor of Prince (later Emperor) Jehangir: his library was the research seminar of the scholars and some ninety-five prominent scholars and teachers had benefited from his personal guidance. Danishmand Khan, once the royal tutor of Emperor Shah Jehan, is described by Bernier as the most learned man of Asia. Danishmand Khan was interested in Western thought and read with Bernier the books of Gassendi (Bernier's teacher) and Descartes. Another famous teacher was Mulla Nizamuddin, the originator of the

[1] Jaffar, S.M.: Education in Muslim India, p. 100.

Nizamiyya curriculum. Lastly, Shah Waliullah, whose educational ideas have already been described, may be considered the most renowned teacher and philosopher of all time.

The thoughts and efforts of these renowned teachers of the Mughul period brought about new changes in educational theory and practice in the domains of the Mughul Empires. In a world history of the teaching profession these men will figure as the teachers of all time.

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Chapter III

EDUCATION DURING THE BRITISH PERIOD: AN ANALYSIS OF THE BASIC EDUCATIONAL POLICIES AND OF THE PROBLEMS OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

All the education authorities in the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent, both official and unofficial, have successively voiced their opinion during the last two decades that the present system of education, established during the British rule, must be overhauled if a new national system of education is to be developed in its place. After the advent of national independence, the need for a national system of education in Pakistan has become most urgent. But the question is: what needs to be changed in the present system of education? The main purpose of this chapter is to find an answer to this question. It is not, therefore, concerned with the detailed development of the British system of education.[1] An attempt will rather be made to analyse the basic educational policies which have determined the aims and objectives, the contents and curriculum, and the organization and administration of the present system of education and which, if continued, will determine the quality of primary and secondary education as well as of teacher education. In particular, discussion will be centered on those aspects of primary and secondary education which need urgent changes.

[1]Vide Appendix I, for the important landmarks in the development of education during the British period.

A. The Foundational Policies of the Present System of Education

About one hundred years elapsed between the death of the last great Mughul Emperor Aurangzeb (d. 1707 A.D.) which marked the disintegration of the Mughul Empire and every branch of the administration, including the educational system, and the first official interest in education expressed by the East India Company in 1813. In spite of these one hundred years of deterioration, the indigenous system of education still had firm and widespread roots in the national soil, and possessed potentialities of developing into a modern system of education if it had been given financial support and educational leadership by the new British government. William Adam, on the basis of his careful studies and surveys of the local school systems in Bihar and Bengal, had recommended to the Government that:

> **To whatever extent such (local) institutions may exist, and in whatever condition they may be found, stationary, advancing, or retrograding, they present the only true or national foundation, on which any scheme of general or national education can be established. We may deepen and extend the foundation; we may improve, enlarge and beautify the superstructure, but these are the foundations on which the building should be raised... All schemes for the improvement of education, therefore, to be efficient and permanent, should be based upon the existing institutions of the country, transmitted from time immemorial, familiar to the conceptions of the people and inspiring them with respect and veneration. To labour successfully for them, we must labour with them; and to labour successfully with them, we must get them to labour willingly and intelligently with us. We must make them, in short, the instruments of their own improvement; and how can this be done but by identifying ourselves and our improvements with them and their institutions.**[1]

[1]William Adam's Report on Vernaculr Education in Bengal and Bihar, submitted to the Government in 1835, 1836 and 1838 in three parts, Calcutta edition (third report) pp. 357 – 8.

This and other recommendations of Adam, however, were not approved by T.B. Macaulay, who was then the President of the General Committee of Public Instruction.[1] Similarly the viewpoint of the "Oriental Party" comprising those British officials who advocated the cause of the local system of education was rejected by the new class of British officials of the "English Party."[2] Finally, under the leadership of Macaulay the British administrators laid the foundations of the new educational policies in 1835, which slowly wiped out the indigenous system of education.

By the end of the nineteenth century, therefore, the old system of education disappeared almost completely from the field, and a new system of education, which aimed at the spread of western knowledge and culture through medium of the English language, was firmly established in its place.[3]

The views of Macaulay expressed in his official "Minute" of 2nd of February, 1835 laid the foundations of the new British educational policy in India. They are so very well known by now that little attention is paid to them. But in order to understand the origin and implications of some of the educational policies which have persisted to the present, attention needs to be focussed on some of the following significant features of Macaulay's Minute.[4]

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[1]**Ibid.,** pp. xlix –l. Macaulay remarked: "I am a little inclined to doubt, however, whether we are at present ripe for any extensive practical measures which he (Adam) recommends.... I doubt whether we have the men, and I am sure that we have not the money."

[2]The Oriental party was led by H.T Princep who has recorded the viewpoint of the opposite party in his diary as follows: " There was, however, a class of Anglo – Indian, and the younger civil servants mostly joined it, who were opposed to Government's assisting to give instruction in any kind of Eastern literature or science, the whole of which they decalred to be immoral, profane or nonsensical ..."(Sharp, H.: Selections from Educational Records, Part I: Bureau of Education, Calcutta, India, 1920, pp. 132 – 33.

[3]Nurullah, Syed and Naik, J.P.: History of Education in India During the British Period, Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1943, Introduction, p. xvii.

[4]Sharp. H.: Selections from Educational Records, Part I. Bureau of Education, Calcutta, India, 1920, vide pp. 132 – 33.

(a) The Cultural Foundations of the Local System of Education Rejected:

(i). **"False" Curriculum**: According to Macaulay, if the policy of encouraging the local Indo-Muslim learning and literature was adopted, then "we have to teach false history, false astronomy, false medicine, because we find them in company with a false religion." But, said he, "we are not content to leave the natives to the influence of their own hereditary prejudice." He thought that even at that time the "bounties and premiums, such as ought not to be given even for the propagation of truth, we lavish on false texts and false philosophy."

(ii). **Rejection of the Eastern Classical Languages:** According to Macaulay, no one could deny "that a single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia." He argued that: "what we spend on Arabic and Sanskrit colleges is not merely a dead loss to the cause of truth. It is bounty-money paid to raise the champions of error."

(iii). **The Vernacular Languages not to be Employed as Media of Instruction:** "It seems to be admitted on all sides, that the intellectual improvements of those classes of people who have the means of pursuing higher studies, can at present be effected only by means of some language not vernacular amongst them."

(b) Substitution of New Ideals of European Literature and English Language:

(i). **Superiority of Western Literature:** "The intrinsic superiority of the Western literature is fully admitted ... and I certainly never met with any orientalist who ventured to maintain that Arabic and Sanskrit poetry could compare to

that of great European nations .... What the Greek and Latin were to the contemporaries of More and Ascham, our tongue is to the people of India."

(ii). **Superiority and Utility of the English Language:** "The claim of our own language is hardly necessary to recapitulate. It stands pre-eminent even among the languages of the West .... Whoever knows that language has ready access to all the vast intellectual wealth, which all the wisest nations of the earth have created and hoarded in the courses of ninety generations. In India, English is the language spoken by the ruling class. It is spoken by the higher class of natives at the seats of government .... Whether we look to the intrinsic value of our literature, or to the particular situation of this country, we shall see the strongest reason, to think that, of all foreign tongues, the English tongue is that which would be most useful to our native subjects."

(c) **The Main Objectives of The New Education**

(i) **Service to the New Administration:** "We are forced to pay our Arabic and Sanskrit students while those who learn English are willing to pay us. All the declamation in the world abut the love and reverence of the natives for their sacred dialects will never in the mind of any impartial person outweigh this undisputed fact, that we cannot find in all our vast empire a single student who will let us teach him those dialects, unless we will pay him."

(ii). **Creation of a Class, Indian in Blood and Colour, But English in Tastes:** ..... "It is impossible for us, with our limited means, to educate the body of the people. We must at present do our best to form a class who may be

interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern–a class of persons Indian in blood and colour, but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and in intell-ect."

(d) **Control of Education to be Vested in the Hands of the Government:** According to Macaulay it is not for the people to say what kind of education they want. Since the people are ignorant, they as learners ought not to prescribe the curriculum. "I can by no means admit," argued Macaulay, "that, when a nation of high intellectual attainments undertakes to superintend the education of a nation comparatively ignorant, the learners are absolutely to prescribe the course which is to be taken by the teachers. It is not necessary, however, to say anything on this subject. For it is proved by unanswerable evidence, that we are not at present seeking the cooperation of the natives. It would be bad enough to consult their intellectual taste at the expense of their intellectual health."

These views of Macaulay were accepted by the Government as the fundamental basis of the future educational policy. Lord William Bentick, the Governor General, gave his "entire concurrence to the sentiments expressed in this Minute."[1] The Government Resolution of the 7th of March, 1835 stipulated "that the great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India ..."[2] Lord Aukland, the next Governor General, confirmed this same policy as follows:

> **The principal aim of educational policy should be to communicate, through English language, a complete education in European Literature, Philosophy, and Science to the greatest number of students who may be found ready to accept it. Attempts of Government**

[1]Sharp, H.: Selections from Educational Records, Part I, p. 117

[2]**Ibid,** p. 130 – 131.

should be restricted to the extension of higher education to the upper classes of society who have leisure for study and whose culture would filter down to the masses.[1]

Finally Wood's Educational Despatch of 1854,[2] in spite of its advanced recommendations in other directions, substantially confirmed this new policy. The framers of the Educational Despatch, addressing their civil servants in India said:

> **We have now concluded the observations which we think it is necessary to you upon the subject of the education of the natives of India. We have declared that our object is to extend European knowledge throughout all classes of people.**[3]

Thus, the basic educational policies were first defined and determined in Macaulay's Minute of 2nd February, 1835, confirmed by the Government during the following two decades, and accepted in principle in Wood's Despatch of 1854. In accordance with these new policies:

(a) The social, historical and cultural foundations of the existing local system of education were rejected. As a result of this policy, the study of the Eastern classical languages as well as the Indian vernacular languages was neglected.

(b) The study of the English language and literature in particular, and European thought in general was substituted in the new educational system with the result that the new generations in the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent were alienated from the currents of national thought and feeling. Although other advantages did accrue from these new studies, the loss, from the national standpoint, outweighed the advantages.

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[1]Nurullah, **op.cit.,** p.117 (Italics supplied).

[2]Vide Appendix I.

[3]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 172.

(c) The main objectives of the new education being the government service and the English tastes, the new school system failed to prepare the youth for the vocational needs of the country. The English tastes only fostered a false superiority complex. Instead of grasping the scientific spirit of Western thought, the new generations began to imitate and adopt the Western "forms."

(d) The new policy of rigid governmental control wiped out the important feature of community cooperation which was characteristic of the indigenous system of education. It killed both the local initiative and the spirit of experimentation in the school system. It brought in numerous controls in the form of prescribed curricula, external examinations, and authoritarian administration.

(e) Resulting from this policy of governmental control was the latent policy of inaction. With the complete governmental control, the educational administration became a part of the whole political administration. Generally with every government, education had been less favoured as compared to the other departments of public administration. With the colonial government in India, education as well as other public reforms particularly ranked lowest on the scale of governmental responsibilities. Therefore, when the money was spent on other "more important" works under the governmental control, the educational reforms ran parallel to the political reforms. Just as there were many promises for political reforms so also many educational reforms were pledged in the reports of various committees, commissions, and in Government Resolutions. But in both the cases the promises were seldom fulfilled and the recommendations were hardly implemented.

At present, the question is not whether Macaulay or the British Government was right or wrong. The purpose of this discussion is not to fix the blame but rather to analyze, identify, and emphasize these basic educational policies. The present

system of education was entrenched, and later on extended, on the basis of the above policies which in turn raised new issues and created new problems that have been discussed and debated for the last one hundred years.[1] The national opinion had to strive against the issues of control, medium of instruction, the nature of the curriculum, and the extension of primary education. The Government had to strengthen or modify the operational pattern of these policies in accordance with the rising pressure of public opinion or the compelling force of circumstances. But, generally, instead of facing the issues squarely, which necessarily involved more expenditure and more effort, the Government appointed Committees and Commissions which, in turn, raised new issues for new debates, often defeating the original purpose for which they were appointed.

More often such Committees and Commissions were appointed to appease public opinion and hence their recommendations remained on paper, seldom being transformed into action. From Wood's Educational Despatch of 1854 to the Sargent Report in 1944, this policy of indifference, delay and inaction has checked the progress of education. Many significant reforms were recommended by various reports, but they were never carried out. According to Nurullah and Naik: "It is to these, and other omissions to give full effect to the provisions of the Despatch, that the origin of many of the defects of the present educational system can be traced."[2]

Whether the origin of the present ills lies in these omissions or in the commissions characterized by the basic educational policies herein described may be an academic question. But the facts are that the present education is rigidly controlled by the Government: it has no feature of community cooperation, and also it is little related to the life and culture of the people. The study of English is the most dominant part of its curricula, while the examination system rigidly controls the

[1]Vide Bahram, B.K.: Educational Controversies in India, Part I: The Anglo – Orientalist Controversy; Part II: The Anglo – Vernacular Controversy; D.B. Taraporevala Sons & Co., Bombay, 1943.

[2]Nurullah: **op. cit.,** p. 175.

curricula. The ideal of Government service is the guiding principle underlying the preparation of the youth, who go out of the schools ignorant of, and indifferent to, their own culture and institutions. Instead of cultivating a genuine understanding of Western thought, our schools produce degenerated tastes of Western "forms" leading to an inferiority complex among the youth. These facts show that the present system of education is still operating within the framework of the fundamental policies laid down during 1835-1854.

The following discussion of primary and secondary educational systems will show how these controlling policies have affected their progress and development. During the past one hundred years educational reforms were introduced and changes were effected. But, as these changes and improvements were carried out within the operational pattern of these fundamental policies the end results in terms of educational advancement were almost nil. The only tangible gain was the extension of the existing educational structure sustained and supported by these policies. After nearly one hundred years the truth was officially admitted by the Central Advisory Board of Education (1944) that it was impossible to make any sound educational gains within the framework of the existing educational structure or under the operational pattern of the existing policies. According to the Board's "considered opinion it is inconceivable that within a reasonable period a really national system (of education) could be developed or evolved from what now exists or by the methods hitherto followed. Apart from the extremely slow progress which had been made before the war, the present system does not provide the foundations on which an effective structure could be created; and in fact much of the present rambling edifice will have to be scrapped in order that something better may be substituted."[1]

It is, therefore, of immediate importance that the basic policies governing control, contents and objectives of education as well as the traditional policy of indifference and inaction must be reversed. Without such a change any new education-

[1]Central Advisory Board of Educators: Report on the Post – War Educational Development in India, fourth edition, Bureau of Education, India, New Delhi, 1944, p. 2.

al reorganization within the framework of the present policies will, as usual, prove a failure. The following discussion of elementary and secondary education is designed to show how these controlling policies have substantially checked their progress in spite of all the schemes and efforts at their improvement in the past one hundred years.

B. Primary Education

Primary education has been the most neglected part of the present educational system. Due to its artificial improvisation the present system did not grow out of primary schools. Start was rather made by building a superstructure of higher education first and then extending it downward slowly. During the past one hundred years this downward extension has reached the secondary stage,[1] which has been integrated with the higher stage or college education. The primary stage has not been reached thus far. Although the primary grades have been increasingly **attached** to the secondary schools, they are considered strictly **apart** from them. In fact, primary education has not yet been recognized as an integral part of the whole educational system.

The factors that have minimized the importance of primary education and checked its progress are either implicit in, or accidental to, the basic educational policies. Some of these basic factors are: (i) a belief in the **Downward Filtration Theory;** (ii) the introduction of English as either the medium of instruction or as a second language, in the primary grades; (iii) indifferent attitude toward the local community schools and disregard for cooperation with the local communities on the part of administrative officials; (iv) neglect of the rural areas; (v) delaying the introduction of free and compulsory education; (vi) a general policy of indifference and inaction;

[1]More accurately the "high school stage." But gradually, the secondary English grades originally "attached" to high schools have become an integral part of them. This is what may be described as the "English secondary schools system." Those secondary schools in which the vernaculars are the media of instruction are outside this system. This distinction will become clear in the discussion of secondary education (vide p. 121 infra).

(vii) a rigid centralized control, inadequate financial support, and reluctance to place educational responsibility in the hands of the local bodies; and (viii) unnecessary controversies regarding the issue of quality vs. quantity of education.

By now some of these views have been rejected in theory, while the principle of universal, free and compulsory education has been finally accepted. But these policies have constituted the core of the whole tradition of primary education and their legacy dominated the thought, attitude and action of the present administrators and teachers. Some of these policies are likely to persist and retard the progress of primary education unless they are countered with positive efforts. In order to understand their various implications each of these policies will be discussed in the following pages.

1. A Belief in the Downward Filtration Theory

While spreading the new Western education, the attempts of Government were to be "restricted to the extension of higher education to the upper classes of society who have leisure for study and whose culture could filter down to the masses."[1] In accordance with this basic policy, the official support, financial or otherwise, was given mainly to the higher forms of education. The Educational Despatch of 1854 mentioned the need of extending educational facilities to the large masses who "were utterly incapable of obtaining any education worthy of the name by their own unaided efforts." But this recommendation received little attention by the new Education Department which was established under the terms of this Despatch. The departmental efforts were mainly concentrated on the establishment of high schools. In general, similar has been the fate of the references and recommendations of the subsequent Committees and Commissions. The primary education being the education of the masses continued to receive a comparatively far less official support and recognition. In 1929, the Hartog Committee observed "that while much attention has been paid in the past to a consideration of the higher forms of education, the problems of primary education have been comparatively

neglected."[1] But in spite of this observation, the Committee, representing the official point of view, were still more enthusiastic about the secondary education, which they called the education of "the directing classes."[2]

Although outwardly there has been neither an outspoken allegiance to, or any tacit approval of, the original downward filtration policy, the actual educational thinking and planning has not been free form such a concept. Even according to the latest report (1944) on post-war educational development in India, the primary education is devised as the terminal education **for the masses** while the "chief purpose of higher education (inclusive of high schools) is **to form an elite**."[3] Thus the distinction between the higher or upper classes and the masses which was implicit in the **downward filtration** policy has continued on to the present. All along it has been responsible for the kind of importance given in each case to "higher forms" of education and the primary education. Due to the low estimate of the importance of primary education, its cause has been generally neglected.

2. Introduction of English at the Primary Stage

The study of English language and literature and spread of European knowledge was the primary aim of the new educational system. The Despatch of 1884 suggested the study of both "vernacular and English" instead of only English, at the primary stage, while the Indian Education Commission in 1882-4 recommended that "primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through the vernacular."[4] But English came to dominate even the primary stage in many parts of the country. The Government Resolution of 1904, issued under the leadership of Lord Curzon again emphasized that "except in certain of the larger towns of Madras, where

[1]The Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report : Review of Growth of Education in British India, published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, September, 1929, p. 117.

[2]**Ibid.,** p. 90.

[3]Central Advisory Board of Education : Report on Post – War Educational Development, p. 15 (Italics supplied)

[4]Quoted in Nurullah : History of Education, p. 395.

like Urdu in Northern India it serves to some extent the purpose of a **lingua franca,** English has no place and should have no place, in the scheme of primary education." Lord Curzon admitted at the same time that: "ever since the cold breath of Macaulay's rhetoric passed over the field of Indian languages and Indian textbooks, the elementary education of the people in their own language has shrivelled and pined."

With all this emphasis no prohibitive recommendation barring the teaching of English at the primary stage was made till 1944, when the Report on Post-War Educational Development declared that: "The Board are of the opinion that under no circumstances should it (English) find a place in the curriculum of the Junior Basic (Primary) School. Nor are they satisfied as to the desirability of introducing it at the Senior Basic (middle, or Junior) stage,"[1] except where there is a strong public demand for it. But this is a realization which has dawned upon the official thinking only after a full one hundred years, to the great disadvantage of the spread of mass education which must be imparted through the vernaculars.

3. Indifferent Attitude Toward the Local Community Schools and Disregard of Cooperation with the Local Communities

The backbone of any educational system are the local community schools. It is only through these schools, and, with the cooperation of the local communities, that any educational change can be satisfactorily effected. But while laying the foundations of the new educational policies, Macaulay frankly stated that "it is proved by unanswerable evidence that we (the British) are not at present seeking the cooperation of the natives."[2] Since centuries in the past, the indigenous schools had been imparting education to the local population in every part of the country. With their improvement the cause of mass education would have been greatly advanced. But under the new educational policy these community schools were entirely ignored, in spite of numerous official utterances that they

[1]Central Advisory Board of Education : Report on Post – War Educational Development, p. 8.

[2]Vide supra, p. 80

deserved all encouragement. As early as 2nd July, 1822, Sir Thomas Munro stated in his circular letter:

> **It is not my intention to recommend any interference whatever in the native schools ... The people should be left to manage their schools in their own way. All we ought to do is to facilitate the operations of these schools, by restoring any funds that may have been diverted from them and perhaps granting additional ones.**[1]

William Adam, on the basis of his survey of the local school system, recommended that the :

> **Existing native institutions from the highest to the lowest, of all kinds and classes, were the fittest means to be employed for raising and improving the character of the people, that to employ those institutions for such a purpose could be the simplest, the safest, the most popular, the most economical and the most effectual plan ...**[2]

On the basis of Adam's recommendations, the North-Western Provinces (U.P.) had, by 1850, launched Thomason's Plan for the improvement and extension of primary education. This plan, which was based on a district-wise organization of schools, sought the cooperation of the local communities, and used the mother tongue as the medium of instruction. It sought to enlist the support to them for their own improvement. According to this plan, new schools were to be opened where they were needed and "care will be taken to prevent these schools from becoming rivals of the indigenous schools maintained by the natives themselves...."[3] This method of cooperation with the local communities and their schools made this scheme so very successful that the Educational Despatch of 1854 stressed its importance and recommended it as an examp-

[1]Appendix to Selections from the Educational Records, Part -I, (Fisher's Memoir), p. 194.

[2]William Adam's Report pp. 349 – 59.

[3]Richy, J.A.: Selections from the Educational Records, Part – II, Bureau of Education, India, Calcutta, 1922, pp. 249 – 50.

le of encouragement to the indigenous schools for the purpose of mass education. Said the framers of the Despatch:

> **Lastly, what have been termed indigenous schools should, by wise encouragement, such as has been given under the system ... organized by Mr. Thomason in the North-Western Provinces, and which has been carried out in eight districts under the able direction of Mr. H.S. Reid in an eminently practical manner and with great promise of satisfactory results, be made capable of imparting correct elementary knowledge to the great mass of the people.**[1]

In spite of these recommendations, supported by Adam's survey and Thomason's successful experiment, the newly established Education Departments which organized the new official school system after 1854 ignored the local community schools.[2] Whenever the departmental assistance was given to these schools, control was also extended which eventually destroyed them. The Indian Education Commission, reviewing the situation in 1882, supported this policy of official control, observing that the "agency for assisting indigenous schools will necessarily be the agency of control."[3] But in order to safeguard these schools from destruction, the Commission recommended that the responsibility for primary education be turned over to the agencies of local self-government like the "Local Boards, whether Municipal or Rural", which "are likely to be sympathetic with the indigenous system wherever it is valued by the people. In their hands improvement will not involve destruction."[4]

[1]Educational Despatch of 1854, Paragraph 46.

[2]In the provinces of Bombay and Madras they were almost entirely ignored. Even the North – Western Provinces (U.P) where Thomson's plan had been successful, the authorities switched to the Halkabandi system, which resembled the former only in its organizational aspects, but did not attempt to improve the indigenous schools. Vide Nurullah: History of Education, pp. 135; 374 – 79.

[3]Report of the Indian Education Commission, pp. 76 – 8.

[4]**Loc. cit.**

These recommendations did not bring about any change in the official policy. Subsequently, some of the community schools were completely taken over by the Education Departments and were incorporated into the official system. A majority of them died out and only a few that could survive the competition of the departmental schools maintained their existence. As a result, during the period of sixty-seven years between the Despatch of 1854 and the transfer of the control of education of the people to the Indian Ministers in 1921, the newly-established departmental schools could hardly make up the educational loss caused by the ruin of the indigenous schools. Nurullah and Naik have concluded, on the basis of statistical data, "that the Indian Ministers of 1921 had to begin their task in primary education at the stage which, when looked at from the point of view of the work that had yet to be done , was not appreciably different from that which Adam found in 1835-38."[1]

It is obvious that due to this official indifference toward the indigenous schools the progress of mass education has been considerably delayed. If all the community schools had been improved and also the new departmental schools were established to meet the increasing educational need, the figures of literacy would have been doubled by 1921. Besides this loss, this official indifference had some other serious implications. It destroyed the basis of cooperation between the school and the community on which depended any real educational progress. The policy of indifference towards the indigenous schools naturally made the local communities suspicious of the new departmental schools which, moreover, offered new curricula, with little provision for the needs and the sentiments of the local population. Therefore, some sections of the population did not take to the new type of Western education until they were compelled to do so by circumstance.

This legacy of indifference towards the local community schools has lingered up to the present. The most striking example of this indifference is to be found in the treatment of the Muslim schools in Bengal, North-West Frontier, and Sindh, provinces of Pakistan. Hundreds of private

[1]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 431. See also p. 187.

community schools exist even now which have been completely ignored. They neither receive any adequate financial support, nor any of the necessary educational leadership from the Education Departments.

4. The Neglect of Rural Areas

The task of spreading primary education in British India was essentially that of carrying the benefits of education to rural areas and villages where eighty-seven per cent of the total population have lived and laboured. But the official efforts to extend the new educational system were mainly confined to urban areas. No doubt it is far more easy to spread education in the towns and cities than in the rural areas which present innumerable difficulties. However, in a country where eighty-seven per cent of the people happen to reside in the villages, at least a major part of financial and administrative efforts ought to be devoted to rural education. But under the new educational policies, which have persisted up to the present, comparatively far more efforts have been devoted to the spread of education in the urban areas than in the rural areas. The amount of effort expended on rural areas is almost insignificant as compared to the educational need of the rural population.

For many reasons the education of this huge bulk of the population has been neglected. In the first instance, the main obstacle was implicit in the basic policy of educating the higher classes first. From this initial policy resulted a general lack of interest in the education of the masses as will be seen later.

Secondly, while financing primary education, there was an unequal distribution of funds between the rural and the urban areas. In accordance with the provisions of the Second Educational Despatch of 1859, local rates were imposed on land revenue in the rural areas and on houses in the towns for the primary purpose of mass education. During the decade 1861-71 such taxes were imposed in almost all the provinces, but, contrary to the original purpose, only a small portion of income was assigned to education. Moreover, the Municipal Acts of the various provinces did not oblige the municipalities to spend their funds on education, with the result that none of them spent more than five per cent on education except those

in Punjab, which spent 5.29 per cent.[1] On the other hand, the new schools were mostly being established in towns and the funds to support them came, not from the municipal taxes, but in large part from the local taxes paid by the village populations. In 1882, the Indian Education Commission observed:

> **But the complaint has been made that the local fund is properly a rural fund and it should be spent on the villages which contribute it, and not in the towns which only contribute a very small proportion of the cess. Several witnesses of great experience have urged that there should be a redistribution of the financial burden of supporting primary schools, which would set free for rural education funds paid by rural Districts and now appropriated by Municipalities.[2]**

The Commission, noticing this alarming practice recommended the separation of the Rural Fund and the Municipal Fund, which finally prevented the parasitic growth of the education of towns on the taxes paid by the village population. However, this practice reflects upon the attitude and interest of the administrators regarding the promotion of primary education in the villages.

The administrative personnel came to the Educational Departments generally from the cities (and still do) and, conceding that they were not prejudiced against the rural areas, they definitely took greater interest in the school systems of the urban areas. The official policy in spreading the primary education was also based on the principle of spending a less amount of both money and effort in the rural areas. Since it was easy to open schools in towns at a comparatively smaller cost, the rural areas were neglected. Even the Compulsory Primary Education Acts, which were passed during the decade 1917-1927, were mostly pressed into the service of urban areas except in the Punjab and Central Provinces.[3] By 1936-37, according to Nurullah and Naik, much more "progress has

[1]Nurullah: History of Education p. 383.

[2]Report of the Indian Education Commission, p. 154.

[3]Vide figures on compulsion areas given in the Quintennial Review of the Progress of Education in India, 1922 – 27.

been made in urban areas than in the rural areas. This is due to two main causes: firstly, the conditions in urban areas are more favourable to the introduction of compulsion; and secondly, both Gover-nment and the local authorities are tempted to take up schemes in urban areas because the additional cost of compulsion in these areas is far less than that of introducing compulsion in rural areas."[1]

It is undeniable that in every country there are difficulties in spreading education in the rural areas. Since there were comparatively greater difficulties in the subcontinent of India, greater efforts were needed to solve them. But the authorities concerned instead of making any concentrated efforts to solve these difficulties cited them as a solid excuse. As a result, even the benefit of primary education remained withheld from the village population. According to the Royal Commission on Agriculture, "the number of primary schools in India is still far from sufficient for the number of villages whose needs they are called upon to serve."[2]

The Hartog Committee (1927-29) admitted that: "the problem of mass education in British India is preponderantly a rural problem," since "only 12.9 per cent of the population live in towns."[3] But in spite of this fact, the Hartog Committee only elaborated the defensive arguments in order to cover up the sporadic character of the official efforts towards educating the village population. A comprehensive list of all conceivable obstacles was drawn up by the Committee. Among these obstacles, the most serious one, according to the Committee, was the very fact of "mass education being a rural problem," in which were inherent the following difficulties:[4]

(a) Small school units; adequate staffing expensive; conditions of life not attractive for teachers; difficulties of administration, supervision and

[1]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 552.

[2]Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture in India, 1928, published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, and printed in India, 1928, p. 525.

[3]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, p. 37.

[4]**Ibid.,** pp. 37 – 40.

inspection much greater; difficulties in securing regular and prolonged attendance of children.

(b) Poverty, illiteracy, and narrow and conservative outlook of parents.

(c) Low density of population; inadequate means of communication; physical obstacles as in hilly areas and deltas; and unfavourable climatic conditions.

(d) Existence of large tracts of backward areas.

(e) Irregularity of attendance due to poverty, etc., and due to epidemic and seasonal illness.

(f) Difficulty arising out of barriers of caste and complications caused by communal and religious differences.

(g) Linguistic difficulties arising out of attachment to classical and provincial languages as well as due to "innumerable language groups and tribal languages" in the Agency and Hill Tracts.

When the Committee began to enumerate remedial steps, they did not say why those solutions had not been resorted to by the officials earlier. On the contrary, while pointing out these solutions, the Committee wanted to assure that "we do not thereby intend to cast any reflection on the body of devoted public servants who in the face of great difficulties have done their best."[1] This defensive diagnosis of the Committee, far from encouraging a concerted attack on the problem of educating the village population, only provided a strong excuse for the officials and perpetuated their traditional policy of inaction.

Following the Committee's report, these obstacles have been continuously cited in most of the official reports as an excuse for the lack of further progress. For instance, the Report of the Education Reorganization Committee of the Province of Sindh, nearly fourteen years later in 1941, repeated some of

[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, p. 40.

these obstacles enumerated by the Hartog Committee in 1927, almost verbatim.[1] That the problem of educating the eighty-seven per cent of the rural population has not been squarely faced by the administrators is obvious from the Report of the Central Advisory Board (1944) that no "substantial progress has yet been made is obvious from the fact that over eighty-five per cent of the population is still illiterate." This percentage of illiterates consists mainly of the rural population.

5-6. Delay in the Introduction of Free and Compulsory Education: A Policy of Persistent Inaction

The Pakistan Educational Conference (November 27-December 1, 1947) held at Karachi has emphasized that illiteracy in Pakistan must be wiped out by means of universal, free and compulsory education as well as through a wide extension of adult education. As regards the minimum period of compulsion the Conference unanimously resolved that "free and compulsory primary education be introduced for a period of five years which gradually be raised to eight years."[2] Under the conditions of national independence, the chances of achieving this modest yet important educational goal seems to be brighter, though it must be recognized that it is a tremendous task to implement this Resolution, particularly when eighty-five per cent of the population is still illiterate. The greatest obstacle lies in the traditional approach which is characterized by the official policy of delay, excuses and inaction in educating the masses.

The national government has inherited an educational legacy that is already full of many promising resolutions which have never been fully implemented. The following criticism of the Indian Central Committee (1929) illustrates this traditional policy of inaction:

The primary education of the masses has thus been declared repeatedly during the last seventy-five years to be the special care of the British Government in India. It is, therefore,

[1]Report of the Education Reorganization Committee, The Government Press, Karachi, 1941. Vide p. 62.

[2]Proceedings of Pakistan Educational Conference, Resolution No.16(i), p. 45.

worthwhile to examine the progress achieved in this direction during that period and to see how far it has kept pace with the repeated declarations of policy. The population of British India, according to the census of 1921, is 247 millions. In 1917, that is, sixty-three years after the Despatch of 1854, and on the eve of the Government of India Act of 1919, only 6.4 millions, that is, 2.59 per cent of the total population, were receiving instruction in recognized primary schools. The total expenditure in the same year on primary schools amounted to 2.93 crores[1] of rupees. When we compare this amount with the total disbursement for the year of the Central and Provincial Governments, namely 155.86 crores, or the expenditure of the army, namely, 46.14 crores, the true measure of the interest displayed by the Government in mass education becomes apparent. It is not surprising in the face of these facts that public opinion in India was profoundly disappointed with the rate of progress achieved and became openly skeptical as to the professed intention of the Government in the matter.[2]

The Educational Despatch of 1854, the Indian Education Commission of 1882, and Lord Curzon's Resolution on Educational Policy of 1904, successively emphasized that the provision, extension, and improvement of the primary education of the masses was one of the most important duties of the Government. But no practical measures were adopted to spread primary education among the masses. When a bill was introduced in the Central Legislature in 1912[3] providing for a "gradual introduction of the principle of compulsion into the elementary education system of the country, "it was opposed by the majority of official members and was killed at the Committee stage. It was only after 1921 when the control of education was transferred to popular ministries that the Compulsory Education Acts were passed in most of the provinces. But when they were put into effect, the official policy of inaction retarded their progress. Commenting

[1]One Crore = ten millions. According to the present rate of exchange 3 1/3 rupees = 1 dollar.

[2]Report of the Indian Central Committee (1928 – 29), London, 1929, p. 17.

[3]The bill was introduced by G.K. Gokhale, the non-official member.

on the program of compulsory education under these acts during 1927-37, Nurullah and Naik observed that:

> **The rate of extension of compulsion has been very slow. At the rate of progress seen in this period, it would take India 500 years to introduce universal compulsion. In Bombay, for example, the Primary Education Act of 1923 contemplated the introduction of universal compu-lsion in ten years. But even in 1937, fourteen years after passing the Act, only three per cent of the population was brought under compulsion.[1]**

The reason for this official policy of delay and inaction probably lies in the fact that although the colonial government admitted the State's responsibility for promoting primary education in the country, it never assumed the full responsibility for educating the whole population. According to Nurullah and Naik (1943): "A curious fact that emerges from an analysis of past history is that neither the Central Government nor the provincial governments have accepted full responsibility for mass education."[2] The report of the Central Advisory Board of Education, in 1944, for the first time, recognized and accepted "the need for a national system of education for both boys and girls which will provide the minimum preparation for citizenship," with the observation that the need for such a provision "has been under discussion for many years, but that no substantial progress has yet been made is obvious from the fact that over 85 percent of her (India's) population is still illiterate."[3] The Board recommended that: "A system of universal, compulsory, and free education for all boys and girls between the ages of six and fourteen should be introduced as speedily as possible, though in view of the practical difficulty of recruiting the requisite supply of trained teachers it may not be possible to complete it in less than forty years."[4]

[1]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 552.

[2]**Ibid.,** p. 627.

[3]Central Advisory Board of Education: Report on Post – War Educational Development. P. 6.

[4]**Ibid.,** p. 12.

Thus, since 1835 when the functional policies of the present system were laid, it is after more than one hundred years that it has been recognized for the first time that all boys and girls should receive primary education. Even for the achievement of the goal of eight years of education, it is estimated that another forty years will be required. Besides, the Central Advisory Board only made these recommendations, and was not in a position to provide the money to carry out the task. Since the publication of the Board's report in 1944, questions have been raised regarding the availability of funds and an adequate supply of teachers. To these obstacles may be added the lack of trained administrative personnel and the other "innumerable difficulties" in educating the masses who reside in the rural areas–difficulties which have been reiterated successively during the past three decades.

All these factors equally apply to the recent Resolution of the Pakistan Educational Conference that a "free and compulsory primary education be introduced for a period of five years which should gradually be raised to eight years". Unless the past legacy of indifference, excuses, and inaction is rejected and positive steps are taken towards the accomplishment of this goal, the Resolution of the Conference will only be another addition to the past resolutions and recommendations. The real success will depend upon the conviction and courage, with which the problem of compulsory education is faced squarely, particularly by the administrators and their institutional machinery from the point of view of sound planning, administrative efforts and insight to carry on the plans, and securing the necessary financial support.

7. Finance, Control and Responsibility: Local Versus the State

It becomes clear from the study of the historical development of primary education during the British period, that ever since the control and responsibility was placed in the hands of local bodies, these provided an increasing financial support for the spread of primary education. The extension of mass education to whatever extent it has been, is chiefly due to the financial efforts of the local bodies. In fact, "barring the short interval between 1904 and 1917, the responsibility for

mass education has all along rested with local funds and local bodies."[1]

In accordance with the second Educational Despatch of 1859, new acts were passed in almost all the provinces levying local rates for carrying out local functions. Though originally these local rates were meant for the support of mass education, actually the percentage of local fund income allocated to education was very small in each province. According to the Indian Education Commission:

> **In the nine years, which followed the introduction of the Local Fund Act IV of 1871, education received on the average 9 per cent of the local fund income derived from the rates and taxes only, while of the whole local fund it received only a little more than 6 per cent.**[2]

However, it was the first opportunity given to the people to pay for their local needs, and since the locally derived funds became a substantial source of income, the Central Government conceded that the people should have a voice in the management of their own funds for their own local needs, particularly the educational ones. The Government also clarified the issue of financial support to primary education by laying down that it "**must be supported both by imperial funds and local funds.**" According to the policy declared in 1871 by the central government:

(a) It will rest with the local Governments, under the new system of financial control, to determine in what localities and to what extent such grants (grants-in-aid for primary education) shall from time to time be made.

(b) It has been repeatedly declared by the Secretary of State that it is a primary duty to assign funds for the education of those who are at least able to keep themselves, and that the education of the masses, therefore, has the greatest claims on the State funds.

(c) .... The fact is that primary education must be supported both by imperial funds and by local rates ....

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[1]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 829.

[2]Report of The Indian Education Commission, p. 152.

> This (local efforts) does not lessen the obligation of the Government ... to supplement the sums raised by local efforts.[1]

This was the most important policy declaration recognizing the principle that basically the education of the people is the responsibility of the State but its advancement, control and management should be increasingly entrusted to local initiative and local efforts. Secondly, the report advocated that wherever the locally derived funds proved to be inadequate, the local education needs must be met by the State.

As a result of this new policy, one decade later, 1881-82, the amount of financial support to primary education derived from Local Board and Municipal funds had far exceeded the State provided aid in most of the provinces.[2] The Indian Education Commission, when it evaluated the whole situation in 1882 found that the local bodies, apart from their ability to provide increasing financial support, would also be in a better position to utilize the local community schools which had suffered at the hands of the departmental officials. The Commission therefore recommended that school districts and school boards be organized in the provinces and that the control of primary education be transferred to these districts and municipal boards. It also defined the whole machinery of these boards, their power and their responsibility. As regards the policy of financial support the most significant recommendations of the Commission were that:

(a) The Primary Education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public education which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education, and a large claim on Provincial revenues.

(b) That while every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare eleme-

[1]The Circular No. 63, dated 11 – 2 – 1871, from the Government of India, quoted by Nurullah, in his History of Indian Education, pp. 388 – 89.

[2]Report of the Indian Education Commission, vide figures given on pp. 166 – 67.

> ntary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore.[1]

These recommendations confirmed the earlier policy of 1871, that education is the State responsibility and, therefore, Primary Education in particular should receive greater financial support from the State. Secondly, up to 1882 the local bodies had contributed far greater share of funds for primary education than the provinces, although much of the local funds had been diverted to other purposes. The Commission proposed to correct this situation by recommending that education should have an exclusive claim on the local funds, while the provinces should contribute much more than they had done before. Thirdly, finding the success achieved in spreading primary education through the efforts of local bodies, the Commission recognized the principle that the control and management of primary education must rest with the local bodies.

In pursuance of these recommendations, local Self-Government reforms were introduced under Lord Ripon's Resolution "as a means of popular education by which alone progressive communities cope with the increasing problems of Government."[2] Local Boards and Councils, and Municipal Boards, Committees and Councils were established in all the provinces. Primary Education was placed under the control and management of these local bodies. The result of this increasing measure of local autonomy was the local financial efforts for educational support increased almost by one hundred per cent within the next fifteen years, as is shown by the following table:

[1]**Ibid.**, pp. 68, 583 – 84.

[2]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 416.

Expenditures on Primary Schools from the Provincial and the Local Funds between 1886/87-1901/02 [1]

Source	1886-87 (rupees)	1891-92 (rupees)	1901-02 (rupees)
From Provincial Funds.	1,600,239	1,343,343	1,692,514
From Local & Municipal Funds	2,607,624	3,586,208	4,610,387

It is obvious from the above figures that the Provincial funds did not increase proportionately in spite of the recommendations of the Indian Education Commission. Therefore, the total funds were not enough to meet the increasing public demand for a wide extension of primary education. Moreover, by 1902 greater emphasis was also being placed on improving the quality of education. Hence larger funds were needed to meet the increasing cost of education. In his Resolution on Educational Policy dated 11 March, 1904, Lord Curzon admitted that the provinces had not contributed enough toward the cost of primary education as recommended by the Indian Education Commission (1882/84) and that, henceforth, the provinces should give greater financial support for the extension and improvement of primary education. It was also accepted that primary education "possessed a strong claim upon the sympathy of both the Central Government and the local governments, and should be made a leading charge upon provincial revenues: and that, in those provinces where it is in a backward condition, its encouragement should be a primary obligation."[2] This Resolution, therefore, clearly

[1]Adopted from Nurullah: History of Education, p. 550. See also the figures for 1922 and 1927 given by the Hartog Committee, which show the same proportionate increase. Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, p. 41.

[2]Indian Educational Policy (Resolution of the Government of India of 11 March, 1940).

accepted the principle that public education inclusive of primary education, was the responsibility of the State, and that, the provincial and the Central Government should provide financial support for the spread of primary education, particularly in those backward areas where the local support had not been able to meet the local educational needs.

In accordance with this policy the State support to primary education gained strength gradually after 1904. The local support also increased and the efforts of the local bodies contributed a great deal to the wide extension of primary education. In 1921 when the subject of Education was transferred to Indian Ministers in each province, the Provincial Education Acts were passed, under which still greater powers of control and management of primary education were given to the local self-governing bodies. The result of this full local educational autonomy along with greater provincial support was that thereafter the benefit of primary education was increasingly extended to the people. The following figures show the increase in number of primary schools and the pupils attending them in the decade after 1921.

Table Showing the Number of Primary Schools and Pupils Attending Them 1921-22 to 1931/32[1]

No. of	1921-22	1926-27	1931-32
Reconstructed Primary Schools.	155,017	184,829	196,708
No. of pupils in above	6,109,752	8,017,923	9,162,450

So far as financial support toward this extension of primary education was concerned, the "Government contribution was smaller than that of the Non-Government sources."[2] The most substantial contribution was that from the

[1]Adopted from Nurullah: History of Education, p. 550. See also the figures for 1922 and 1927 given by the Hartog Committee, which show the same proportionate increase (Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, p. 41).

[2]Nurullah, **op. cit.,** pp. 550 – 51.

local bodies. According to the Hartog Committee (1927-29): "The local bodies have, in many cases, devoted a large part of their own local funds to education. Nearly Rs.366 lakhs are now spent from district local board and municipal funds on education."[1]

A comparison of this amount with Rs.2,607,624 contributed by the local bodies in 1886/87, when they were given a greater measure of local autonomy under the recommendations of the Indian Education Commission, would show that during the forty years from 1887 to 1927, the local support of education increased fourteen times, or, in other words, during every five years it increased on an average of more than 150 per cent. After 1927, the proportionate increase in the local support was still greater than that of the State support.[2]

This comparatively detailed account of the issues of finance, control and responsibility regarding primary education from 1871 to 1927 leads to the following conclusions: (a) It was officially recognized that primary education is a State responsibility and, as such, it gradually received greater support from both the Central and the Provincial Governments, even though the support given was meagre and inadequate as compared to the educational need. (b) Secondly, it was established that primary education is the first concern of the local funds. In those areas where the local support is not sufficient to meet the local educational need, the State (Central and Provincial) will provide the requisite financial support. (c) By successive official measures it was firmly established that the control and administration of primary education should rest with the local bodies. (d) These evolving local self-governing institutions shouldered an ever-increasing financial responsibility which mainly contributed to the wide extension of primary education.

The conservative officials, however, failed to appreciate the democratic significance of the local bodies and their growing share in the control and management of mass education. The report of the Hartog Committee (1929), there-

[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission, **op. cit.,** p. 30.

[2]Nurullah: History of Education; vide figures for 1936/37, p. 551.

fore, attempted to reverse the previous policy of more than half a century (1871-1927), which had consistently developed these local self-governing institutions and invested them with the control and management of the primary education.

Since 1904 the Government had pressed the issue of quality as a counter measure against "quantity of education" which was being demanded by public opinion in view of the slow educational progress. Following the same official policy, the Hartog Committee pronounced their ill-intentioned criticism of the quantitative expansion of the school system and also of the agencies which were responsible for it. Moreover, in accordance with the traditional official policy, the Committee recommended the centralized govern-mental control as a means of improving the quality of education. The argument was subtly advanced that the local bodies had usurped the powers of the Indian Ministers in the Provinces. The Committee maintained:

> **We have not suggested, nor do we suggest, that responsibility of Ministers in the Provinces should be reduced. On the contrary, we are of the opinion that they have been reduced too much already by a devolution on local bodies which has taken the control of primary education to a large extent out of their hands, with unfortunate results.... The formation of an educated directorate is a matter for the nation. Under recent legislation, powers have been devolved on local bodies in such a way that the Ministers responsible to the Legisla-tures have no effective control of the expenditure of money voted for mass education; and in some cases, owing to inadequate inspection, they have little information as to the results of that expenditure. It is clear that the new factor of ministerial responsibility has not been taken sufficiently into account.**[1]

This official criticism struck at the root of the long accepted democratic principle of local educational control. The report augmented the traditional attitude of apathy and indifference among the officials towards the educational efforts

[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, pp. 346 – 47.

of these local bodies. It also led some of the leading educators to presume erroneously that the transfer of control and administration to the local bodies meant that the State or the Provinces had relinquished all responsibility for mass education. They also thought that after the installation of popular ministries there was no need for these local self-governing bodies. Failing to differentiate between "responsibility" and "control" they thought that, since education was the responsibility of the Provinces, its control must also be centralized into the Provincial Governments. Hence, "the powers [of control and management] given to local bodies by the Primary Education Acts will have to be courtailed."[1]

Since 1929, therefore, a new official trend of depriving these local bodies of control and management of primary education got under way. It has been continuously charged during the past two decades that these local bodies are weak, corrupt and inefficient and, therefore, control of primary education should be taken over by the Provincial Governments. In fact this kind of criticism has been made against all the administrative agencies under popular control. During the colonial period these popular agencies, apart from being in their developing stage, had neither complete administrative freedom nor enough financial resources and, therefore, they were inefficient as compared to the governmental agencies. Because of this reason efficiency was attributed to governmental control which was advocated in every branch of popular administration.

The local bodies could have been made more efficient and their administration of primary education could have been greatly improved through greater financial support and better educational leadership on the part of the provincial governments. But the report of the Hartog Committee came to dominate the official viewpoint in the provinces, and efforts were made to check the expansion of primary education schools.[2] Finally the stage was set to take over the control of

[1]Arguments advanced by Nurullah and Naik who "entirely agree" with the above view of the Hartog Committee. Vide Nurullah: History of Education, pp. 630 – 31.

[2]Nurullah: History of Education, pp. 546 – 47.

primary education from the local bodies. For instance, in the province of Sindh, the Education Reorganization Committees in their Report (1941) said:

> **It is a common knowledge that the Primary education Act (of Bombay) 1923, supposed to be an enlightened measure has, in fact, proved to be a step in the wrong direction. It has deprived the Education Department of that effective power of supervision, direction and control, which, even in highly-developed Western countries, is recognized as most essential. We are of the opinion that the vigorous and inspiring direction in a centralized system can and will produce appropriate results in a short time.... We recommend:**
>
> **1. That the Primary Education Act be scrapped and the entire control of Primary Education be made over to the Education Department, contr-olled by that Ministrer of Education, who, with other Ministers, will be responsible to the people for education in general and that of masses in particular.**
>
> **2. That it can be done by reversing the present policy. The Department, while retaining absolute control of Primary Education, can recover one third or one half as the case may be, from the Local Authorities concerned.**[1]

In accordance with these recommendations, the Government of Sindh has recently taken over the control of primary education from the Local Boards. The effects of this policy remain to be seen, but from the democratic viewpoint, the step is hardly commendable. Some of the opinions of this Committee are not justified. An absolute control of Sec-ondary Education by the Education Department during the past century has at least not produced any "appreciable result in a short time" as will become clear in the following section. Secondly, the control of primary education is also not centralized "in highly-developed Western countries", at least not in England and America.

From a sound educational point of view, there is no justification for centralizing educational control. It has been

[1]Report of the Education Reorganization Committee (in the province of Sindh), The Government Press, Karachi, 1941, pp. 181 – 82.

seen from the past analysis that one of the main causes of slow educational progress was that the new education was not kept close to the local communities. Moreover, it was after the establishment of local bodies in 1871 that the wide extension of new school system was achieved through their ever-increasing amount of financial support.

After the achievement of national independence the need for developing local initiative through the local self-governing agencies is far greater than before. It will be erroneous to assume that the local bodies have outlived their utility. If the local bodies are weak and inefficient, they ought to be strengthened. The provinces must provide the needed educational leadership and financial support to help them to improve their situation. The experience of the past one hundred years clearly shows that centralized control is not the remedy for our educational ills.

8. Quality Versus Quantity

Nowhere else was the conflict between the official viewpoint and the public opinion more unfortunate than on the issue of quality versus quantity of education. A consistent policy of inaction on the part of the government, its evasion of responsibility, and reluctance to spend money and efforts comparable to the needs of mass education, called for continuous protest from the public. With greater political awakening by the beginning of this century the public opinion started pressing the Government to extend primary education to the masses of the country. The local bodies and the private community enterprise concentrated their efforts on this quantitative expansion and their achievements, far exceeding the official efforts, naturally embarrassed the Government. As a counter-move the Government skillfully initiated their policy of qualitative improvement which, since 1902 and subsequently, became a formidable defense against the growing public unrest for "quantitative expansion".

From an objective point of view, it cannot be said that this quantitative expansion was all perfect. Achieved under an enthusiasm for extending education to the masses, it had many glaring inadequacies both from the point of economy and that of efficiency. But, according to the national opinion, all efforts were worthwhile even if they spread mere literacy among the

population. On the other hand, the official viewpoint of improving the quality of education was undoubtedly a worthy ideal in itself. But in actual practice it rather proved to be a defensive weapon of the conservative official policy against the growing public demand for mass education.

It would have been a sound policy to improve the quality of school systems along with its expansion which was urgently needed. But the official policy stipulated that the expansion must be checked in order to improve the quality. Secondly, the quality of education could have been improved by developing local initiative and community cooperation. The official policy aimed at curbing the local initiative, freedom and extending rigid governmental controls over the school system. Thirdly, the quality of education could have been improved through improving the quality of supervision and inspection, thus providing better educational leadership to the local school systems. But the departmental supervision remained weak and ineffective, and was used mainly for tightening up the governmental control. Fourthly, the quality of education could have been improved by improving the quality of teacher education. It was only in this one field that steps were taken to provide comparatively more facilities for teacher training. But these facilities only met a fraction of the whole need of the existing school system. Moreover, even this official step was in the direction of quantitative expansion of teacher training schools. The quality of teacher education was little improved. Lastly, the quality of education could have been improved, by improving the quality of the curricula of the primary schools. But, here again there were only official declarations and resolutions which were not, and could not be, put into effect because of lack of freedom to the teacher under the policy of rigid official control and also because of lack of trained teachers and supervisors.

The following successive official pronouncements regarding the quality of curriculum, particularly in the primary schools, indicate that the recommendations made prior to 1902 were better than those following 1902 when qualitative improvement received the predominant attention of Government.

1854: Our attention should now be directed to a consideration... which has been hitherto, we are bound to admit, too much neglected, namely, how useful and practical knowledge, **suited to** every **station**

in life may be best conveyed to the great mass of the people... [1] (The Educational Despatch of 1854).

1882: Primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through the vernacular in such subjects as **will fit them for their position** in life.[2] (The Indian Education Commission, 1882).

1904: Primary Education is the instruction of the masses through vernacular, in such subjects as will best stimulate their intelligence and fit them for their position in life.

(Lord Curzon's Educational Policy Resolution, 1904) [3]

1913: There should be large expansion of lower primary schools teaching the three R's with drawing, knowledge of the village geography, nature study and physical exercise.
It is not practicable at present in most parts of India to draw any great distinction between the curricula of rural and urban primary schools.[4]

(Government Resolution on Educational Policy, 1913).

The above official pronouncements indicate that the viewpoint of the Educational Despatch of 1854 was most conducive to the improving of the quality of primary school curricula. According to the Despatch the school curriculum should be closely related to the life of the people and should prepare pupils for every position in life. The Indian Education Commission proposed to assign the masses "their position" in life but even then the Commission's recommendations aimed at a kind of curriculum which prepared for life.

During the period from 1902 to 1917 the official policy exclusively aimed at improving the quality of primary education, and yet the Resolution of 1904 merely repeated the words of the Indian Education Commission, while the Resolution of 1913 with its emphasis on the three R's hardly envisaged any qualitative improvement. In actual practice the

[1]Nurullah: **op. cit.,** p. 165 (italics supplied).

[2]Nurullah: op. cit., p. 395 (italics supplied). The Commission skillfully substituted the phrase "their position" in place of "every position" used by the Despatch. According to the Commision, higher positions and higher education were meant for the higher classes.

[3]**Ibid.,** p. 414.

[4]**Ibid.,** pp. 426 - 27

quality of curricula was little improved as is shown by following observations of the Hartog Committee:

> **Much criticism has been levelled against the curricula adopted in the primary schools. A curriculum unrelated to the conditions of the village life results in a divorce between the interests of the school and the interests of the home and in the stiffening of the belief among the rural population that little benefit is to be obtained from the sacrifice involved in sending their children to school.**[1]

By 1929, the Hartog Committee finally consolidated the official stand in favour of "qualitative improvement" and against the quantitative expansion. The Committee in their report started with the mention of the quantitative growth of education. They discovered from the statistics, if not with alarm, at least with some anxiety, that:

> **In the last ten years there has been rapid growth in the volume of education as measured by the numbers of institutions and pupils, and that this growth is becoming more rapid..... Of a total increased enrollment of 63 millions during the last thirty years more than one–third was added in the five years ending with 1927..... Since nearly three million pupils were added between 1922 and 1927, it is probable that if no financial or other checks come into operation four or five million more will be added between 1927 and 1932.**[2]

On one hand the Committee enumerated a number of obstacles as a defense against the slow progress of mass education, while on the other they enumerated a number of defects in the existing school systems and advocated qualitative improvement instead of further extension of mass education. Imbued with a defensive philosophy, their otherwise good report created bad results. It checked the momentum of further expansion of primary education, retarded enforcement of compulsion, and reversed the policy of developing local democratic agencies responsible for the extension of mass education.

[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, p. 63.

[2]**Ibid.,** pp. 29 – 30.

The report also created two camps among the educators. Ever since the Committee's report, this kind of thinking has increasingly dominated the educational circles and has hindered the progress of mass education.

After the achievement of national independence this type of thinking needs to be reoriented. Concepts of "quality" and "quantity" under the present circumstances in Pakistan are not contradictory but complementary. Stress on "quality" as an excuse for checking further efforts at educational expansion is as harmful as the quantitative expansion without any attention to the quality of instruction. After the acceptance of the principle of universal, free and compulsory education the issue of "expansion" is no longer open to discussion. Attention, therefore, must be centered on the quality of education that is to be imparted to the citizens of a young democratic state like Pakistan under the new scheme of compulsory education for all. With sound planning, it is possible to achieve the ideal of universal, free and compulsory education without sacrificing its quality on which must depend the welfare of the whole nation.

C. Secondary Education

The Secondary School system constitutes the core of the British system of education in the Indo–Pakistan subcontinent. As seen from the preceding discussion, the Government had little direct interest in primary education. The Educational Despatch of 1854 pointed out that in the past, efforts of the Government had been mainly directed to the higher education of the upper classes but, henceforth, attempts should be made to extend "far more widely the means of acquiring general European knowledge of a less high character."[1] This objective was to be "effected by means of English Language in the higher branches, and by that of vernacular language of India to the great mass of people". The Despatch, therefore, recommended a multiplication of high schools below which came the middle schools and then the indigenous primary schools which were to be encouraged by a suitable grant-in-aid system. A large numb-

[1]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 290.

er of English schools were soon established all over the country, which irrespective of the age of the children attending them, became an essential part of secondary school system. In fact, instruction in English became almost synonymous with secondary education.

These new Secondary English schools in general and the high schools in particular became the effective agencies for the desired educational change and, therefore, received full official support and encouragement. They also became a stronghold of governmental control. Occupying the central place in the new scheme of education and, engaging the primary endeavours of the Education Department throughout nearly the past one hundred years, they reflect the best and worst aspects of the modern system of education. Throughout this period they have faithfully served the original aims and objectives with which they were established. They have mainly **taught the English language to the selected few** in order to **prepare them for the Government service immediately** or after college education. Since these fundamental objectives have hardly changed, there has been little change in the aims and objectives, content and curriculum, and organization and administration of secondary education.

Although the Educational Despatch opened up an era for the growth of English secondary schools, there were many other factors which contributed to their rapid growth and development. Some of the most important factors were: the direct departmental interest in the English secondary schools, active and the growing interest of private enterprise in establishing the English schools, particularly after the recommendations of the Indian Education Commission (1882), the increasing financial support by the government to the Departmental Schools, and grant-in-aid to private schools, and finally the growing demand for English education which alone qualified for lucrative government posts in the ever-extending field of British administration.

The rapid increase in the number of secondary schools from 1854 to 1936/37 is represented by the following figures:[1]

[1]Nurullah: History of Education, pp. 293, 317, 375, and 509.

	1854	1881-82	1901–02	1921-22	1936–37
No. of Secondary Schools	169	3,916	5,124	7,530	13,056
No. of Pupils	18,335	214,077	590,129	106,803	287,872

These figures represent only Government secondary schools which had increased to 1,363 with 44,605 pupils by 1882.

These given figures included some Indian states while other figures are only for British India.

With the achievement of provincial autonomy in 1937, still greater efforts were expended to extend the schools system. Since then, the trend has continued in the direction of expansion to bring the benefits of secondary education to a greater number of the school-going population.

This growth of the secondary school system, however inadequate as compared to the educational need of the subcontinent, was encouraging in the sense that it provided for greater educational opportunity for the youth of the country. As such, from the national point of view, "educational advancement" was identified with this "quantitative expansion." This would have been true if the expansion had been in line with the overall progress of all the other branches of education. But it was one–sided, and hence out of balance. It did not grow out of a simultaneous
expansion of the foundational base, the elementary school system. The secondary schools rather multiplied at the expense of the much–needed elementary schools and helped to sustain the super–structure of higher education which served the needs of only the upper classes. Secondly, this expansion took place mostly in the urban areas at the expense of rural areas.

a). Expansion of Secondary Schools at the Expense of Elementary Schools

The Educational Despatch of 1854 had emphasized the need of extending education to the masses, but the Department of Education that it had created gave preference to the establishment of high schools. A large portion of the

newly sanctioned educational funds, therefore, was spent on these high schools. It was only after fifteen years that, in their successive educational Previews (1865–70) the Central Government announced their new policy emphasizing the need of spreading elementary education. As a result, a slight change took place and the all–out efforts at establishing secondary schools were slackened to provide funds for primary schools.

Actually, however, this trend of official interest in, and financial support for, secondary education continued. By 1882, the Indian Education Commission "had found that the progress of secondary education had been far more rapid than that of primary education in the period between 1854 and 1882, and had, therefore, recommended that Government should, in the future, make strenuous efforts to spread primary education and leave the expansion of secondary education mainly to private enterprise. But, as events turned out, secondary education spread very rapidly between 1882 and 1902 and the cause of primary education continued to be neglected as before."[1] It is obvious from the figures already quoted that the expansion of secondary schools continued on at about the same rate subsequently. In itself, this expansion was not undesirable, but without a simultaneous and comparative growth of primary education, these secondary schools failed to fulfill their true educational purpose.

b). Expansion Limited to Urban Areas at the Expense of Rural Areas

From the very outset, little attention was paid to a proper distribution of secondary schools among the urban and the rural areas. The benefit of secondary education was mostly limited to the urban areas. The Indian Education Commission (1882) recommended that the extension of secondary schools be left in the hands of private enterprise; but since the communities which were advanced enough to participate in private enterprise were mostly confined to urban areas the financial support that they received from the Government on a grant-in-aid basis, went towards the educational advancement of these areas.

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[1]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 318.

However, the Commission recommended the "establishment by government, in exceptional cases, of secondary schools in places where they may be required in the interests of the people, and where the people themselves may not be advanced or wealthy enough to establish such schools for themselves with a grant-in-aid."[1] Secondly, the Commission also emphasized that the efforts of the Government should be restricted to the establishment of one high school in each district as a model for private enterprise. Although these two recommendations restricted the government's efforts to a minimum, a considerable number of secondary schools could have been established by the Government in the rural areas where the people were neither "advanced" nor "wealthy enough" to establish such schools. Actually the high schools that were newly opened or were already maintained by the government, were located in the principal towns of the districts, where only a limited number of rural scholars could find their way, provided they got some financial help to maintain themselves. Besides, the education that they received in these Government Schools, though suitable to the urban areas to some extent, was unsuitable to the conditions of rural life.

In 1927–29, the Hartog Committee again pointed out this unequal distribution of secondary schools in "most provinces." According to the Committee, the prosperous areas had been "favoured at the expense of backward areas." In Punjab there was "an ample, possibly too ample, provision of Anglo-vernacular education in the progressive and urban areas, while in the backward and rural areas, schools of this type are painfully few and far between."[2] In spite of this observation, little progress was made within the next fifteen years, as is evident from the Report on Post-war Educational Development, published in 1944. According to this report:

> **The distribution of high schools between rural and urban areas is a question which needs careful conside-ration. The figures for 1940-41 show that out of a total**

[1]Reports of the Indian Education Commission , p. 254.

[2]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, p. 100.

> **of 3,861 high schools in British India, 2310 are located in urban areas, by which is meant towns with a population of over 5,000 persons, although the total population of these areas only amounts to 1/10 of the whole.[1]**

The situation has not changed substantially since 1944, and the above ratio would hold true even if the latest statistics were available.

(c) Extension of Control for Improving the Quality of Secondary Education

By 1902 considerable expansion of secondary schools was achieved through the efforts of private enterprise. At this time an official movement for the reform of collegiate education was already under way. Finally the Indian Universities Act was passed in 1904, which aimed at improving the existing collegiate institutions by extending university control over their programs and policies. This Act was also intended to control the increase of new institutions by prescribing stricter conditions for their recognition by the universities. This new policy in higher education "stressed quality rather than quantity and preferred the method of control to one of laissez faire."[2] With the expansion of secondary education its defects were also thrown into sharp relief. In order to improve its quality the Government adopted "the same policy in secondary education as had been previously adopted in the field of collegiate education by the Indian Universities Act of 1904."[3]

According to the authorities, the expansion as such and the private enterprise that had brought about this expansion were responsible for the deterioration of quality of education in the secondary schools. Logically, therefore, the remedy lay in controlling any further expansion of secondary schools as well as the management of these schools by private enterprise. The Government Resolution of 1904 stated the new policy as follows:

[1]Central Advisory Board of Education: Report on Post–War Educational Development, p. 17.

[2]Nurullah: History of Education, pp. 323 – 24.

[3]Loc. cit.

Whether these schools are managed by public authority or by private persons, and whether they received aid from public funds or not, the government is bound in the interests of the community to see that the education provided in them is sound. It must, for example, satisfy itself in each case that a secondary school is actually wanted; that its financial stability is assured; that its managing body, where there is one, is properly constituted; that it teaches the proper subjects to a proper standard; that due provision had been made for the instruction, health, recreation, and discipline of the pupils; and the teachers are suitable as regards character, number, and qualifications; and that fees to be paid will not involve such competition with an existing schools as will be unfair and injurious to the interests of education. Such are the conditions alone upon which schools should be eligible to receive grants-in-aid or to send up pupils in enjoyment of government scholarships; and schools complying with them will be ranked as "recognized" schools.[1]

The operational effect of this policy was that the Government tightened their control over financial aid to private schools by making the conditions of their "recognition" more difficult. The new schools were required to seek recognition from the Education Departments in order to obtain financial aid, and also form the Universities to be able to send their pupils for Matriculation (high school) examination. Besides, transfer of pupils from "recognized" to "unrecognized" schools was forbidden, with the result that the private schools could not function without gaining "recognition." "Under the new system, 'recognition' ceased to be a mere **advantage,** and became rather a **condition** of existence, thus enabling the Department to bring all secondary schools under its effective control and supervision.[2]

The primary objective of all these policies and procedures was to improve the quality of education, particularly in those schools which were managed by private enterprise.

[1]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 325.

[2]**Ibid** p. 329.

The more positive steps that were proposed to be taken for improving the quality were stated by the Government Resolution of 1913, which said that:

> The policy of the Government ....in regard to secondary schools is:
>
> a. to improve the few existing government schools by ...employing only graduate or trained teachers .... (and)
>
> b. to increase largely the grant-in-aid, in order that added institutions may keep pace with improvements in government schools...

The result of this policy was that only the few government schools received greater attention and a major part of financial support. They also got the benefit of the existing limited facilities for training teachers. The private schools got only limited opportunities to send their teachers to the training colleges which were mostly government institutions. Therefore the percentage of trained teachers in the private schools practically remained unchanged. Moreover, the private schools did not receive any adequate grant-in-aid which the government had proposed to "increase largely."

In fact the quality of secondary education hardly improved. The policies which were supposed to improve the quality only subordinated the private enterprise to the authoritarian government control. Although the stricter conditions of "recognition" gave the government full power of supervision and inspection of all the secondary schools, these truly educational responsibilities were not effectively carried out by the Education Departments. In the words of the Royal Commission on Agriculture (1926-28):

> **In practice, departmental control over education is generally admitted to be somewhat less effective than the three-fold safeguards of inspection, recognition and assistance from government funds might suggest.** [1]

In fact the quality of education could hardly improve without having any trained teachers and supervisors. Because of inefficient supervision, even the administrative and financial controls failed to produce any results. The Royal Commission

[1]Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture, p. 516.

on Agriculture also sounded a timely note of warning regarding the improvement of the quality of inspection by emphasizing that "in the long run the efficiency of (the educational) system rests mainly on the efficiency and courage of the inspectorate maintained by the provincial governments."[1]

It is obvious that from the very outset the officials in trying to improve the quality of education confused the principle of "good supervision" with that of controlling the efforts of private enterprise at further expansion of secondary schools. The new administrative and financial controls brought the private enterprise under absolute government subordination, but did not improve the quality of education. The national opinion, therefore, had reasons to argue "that the attempt of government to control private secondary schools was political in origin and was really intended to curb the growth of national feeling and private Indian enterprise."[2] Moreover, these centralized controls, by curbing the local initiative only contributed to a mechanical uniformity in the programs and policies of the secondary schools.

(d) Domination of English over the School Curriculum

Macaulay's forceful arguments in favour of both the superiority and the utility of the English language gave it a pre-eminent position in the scheme of new education. By 1854, English had already dominated the field of collegiate education. The Educational Despatch of 1854 finally emphasized the importance of extending European knowledge "by means of the English language in higher branches of education," which presumably included high school education. Below the high school stage, the Despatch recommended that the spread of European knowledge be effected through "the vernacular languages of India to the great mass of the people." But due to many reasons, English came to dominate not only the lower secondary stage but also largely the primary stage.

Among the factors responsible for the dominance of English, the foremost one was the very recommendation of the Despatch that in the higher braches of education the new

[1] **Loc. cit.**

[2] Nurullah, **op. cit.,** pp. 329 –30.

knowledge must be imparted "by means of English." This implied that the English was not to be thought as an important second language, but it was also to be used as the medium of instruction beginning with the high school stage. This necessitated the teaching of English from the beginning of the secondary stage so that the pupils may become proficient enough to learn through it at the high school stage. For assuring such a proficiency English was introduced in the upper primary grades in many provinces, while in others it was taught even from the first primary grade. Secondly, the teaching of English became the primary concern of the new schools because only proficiency in English could guarantee a job in the government service. The hold of English over the whole curriculum was also tightened by the final examinations, particularly the Matriculation Examination, which became an indispensable qualification for the higher government positions.

Moreover, the Matriculation was the "standard" set by the Universities for admission to college education. Since the high schools were set up as a lower appendage to higher education, their curricula were also subordinated to the needs of the colleges and the universities. The hold of the universities over the high schools exercised through the control of Matriculation Examinations further contributed to the dominance of English over the secondary school curricula. The following observation of the Indian Universities Commission (1902) is typical of the universities' concern as to the teaching of English in the secondary schools:

> **The declared object of the policy which led to the establishment of the Indian Universities was the extension of European knowledge by means of the English language into the higher branches of instruction. The proper teaching of English must for this reason be regarded as the most important matter in the curriculum of the higher schools and of the universities. Notwith-standing the prominent position given to English throu-ghout the course, the results are most discouraging. Students after matriculation (examination) are found to be unable to**

college.....The evil begins in the schools.... Numbers of students reach the stage of Matriculation without ever having heard an Englishman speak, and incapable of understanding English as spoken by those whose mother-tongue it is. It is beyond our province to enter into details of management of the schools but it is patent that if the universities are to turn out good students in English, boys must be better taught in this subject at schools.[1]

These views represent the kind of policy which was to be followed henceforth with respect to the teaching of English in the secondary schools. The "proper teaching of English" was stressed as "the most important matter in the curriculum of the higher schools." In fact the policy of "qualitative improvement" that was initiated by the Indian Universities Commission in 1902 and followed during the two decades subsequently stressed mostly the effective teaching of English from the secondary schools through the universities. This policy consolidated the hold of English over the secondary school curriculum which has continued on up to the present.

This dominance of English mainly contributed to the following two harmful results:

(i) **An inferior quality of learning and education**

One of the many causes, but nonetheless a most important one, of the inferior quality of secondary education, in particular, has been the compulsory study of English for all, without any regard to the needs, interests and abilities of the individual learner. Moreover, by teaching English both at the primary and the lower secondary stage even the maturity level of the learners was completely disregarded.

Due to these factors, the authorities began to discover with alarm by the beginning of this century that the quality of secondary education had deteriorated, although no evidence is preserved to show that it was any better before that. This deterioration was wrongly attributed to the expansion of the schools system and the financial controls were tightened in order to check this expansion. But, as already discussed, the quality of secondary education did not improve. One of the underlying causes for this deterioration was the considerable

[1]Quoted by Nurullah: History of Education, pp. 351 – 52.

larger enrollment in the secondary schools by 1902. [1] This brought the more average children into the schools, as compared to the more selective ones from the upper classes that dominated previous enrollment. For this increasingly less selective population of the secondary schools it became more difficult to master a foreign language. On the other hand, the new policies which aimed at improving the quality of education stressed that English should be taught in the secondary schools still more rigorously. The result was that the quality of learning and education did not improve substantially.

Secondly, although the authorities had discovered that the study of English at the primary and the lower secondary stage was premature, and that the use of English as a medium of instruction at the high school stage was undesirable, no immediate steps were taken to remedy these defects. The Indian Universities Commission found in 1902 that:

Boys begin to learn English as a language, and also to learn other subjects through the medium of English, long before they are capable of understanding it..... We therefore venture to express our opinion that it is desirable that the study of English should not be permitted to be begun till a boy can be expected to understand what he is being taught in that language....[2]

In view of the above criticism, the Government Resolution of 1904 directed that:

As a general rule a child should not be allowed to learn English as a language until he had made some progress in the primary stages of instruction and has received a thorough grounding in his mother tongue. It should not be prematurely employed as the medium of instruction in other subjects. Much of the practice, too prevalent in Indian schools, of committing to memory ill-understood phrases and extracts from textbooks or notes, may be traced to the scholars' having received instruction through the medium of English before their knowledge of the language was sufficient to enable them to under-

[1]Vide figures, p. 123 supra. now p. 98 supra

[2]Report of the Indian Universities Commission, quoted by Nurullah: History of Education, p. 352.

stand what they were taught. The line of division between the use of the vernacular and of English as a medium of instruction should, broadly speaking, be drawn at a minimum age of 13. [1]

These thoughtful recommendations which emphasized that English should be taught at the proper maturity level, however, were not implemented by the Department officials who tried to improve the existing practice by various means. According to Nurullah and Naik:

> **Newer methods of teaching, such as direct method, were introduced; as far as possible, only trained teachers were appointed to teach English; the teaching of English in the lower standards (grades) was put in the hands of the most competent teachers available in the schools; prescription of textbooks or their abolition, the raising of minimum percentage of marks required for passing, adoption of stricter standards of examination, etc., were also tried. But if the reports of examiners are any guide to the attainments of candidates, the standard of English in 1921-22 was not much different from that of 1901-02. In fact one cannot help feeling that the educationists of this period were attempting an impossible task. They wanted to give everyone who came to the secondary schools a command over English language. This was not possible except in the case of a small minority, and the exaggerated emphasis on a command over English was only little short of torture for the average pupil. It took up a good deal of his time; it hindered the proper study of liberal subjects in the curriculum; and for all the efforts that he made to master the alien language, he was left with a very inadequate sense of achievement.** [2]

During the twenties, although it was generally recognized that the teaching of English should not be introduced at the primary stage, actually it was abandoned to

[1] Indian Educational Policy (Resolution of the Government of India, 11 March, 1904).

[2] Nurullah: History of Education, pp. 352 – 53.

some extent only at the lower primary stage. By 1929 the issue was still being debated whether the study of English should be included in the curriculum at the middle vernacular (upper primary) stage. According to the Hartog Committee (1927–29):

> **The issue has been clouded by the controversy as to whether or not the study of English should be included in the course of a vernacular middle school.** [1]

In actual practice the hold of English over the secondary schools in general and the high schools curriculum in particular has continued to the present day. The only advancement made during the past twenty-five years is that the use of English as the only medium of instruction at the high schools level has been mostly abandoned, and that some subjects which were taught through English are now being taught through vernaculars. But the standard of English required at the Matriculation Examination being the same as before, the pupils and teachers even now devote greater efforts to "mastry" of English because of the loss in its proficiency caused by the intrusion of the vernaculars. It was only in 1944 that the Central Advisory Board recommended, for the first time, that English should not be taught at the primary stage at all; that its teaching should be optional at the middle stage (Grade V to VII); and that it should be taught as "Compulsory second language" at the high school level. [2]

A natural corollary of the continued dominance of English is the continued neglect of the vernaculars. The Educational Despatch of 1854 had recommended the "gradual enrichment of the vernacular languages" which should also be employed as media of instruction below the high school stage. But, unfortunately, the policy of the Education Department at this time was apparently not favourable to the continuation of the modern languages of India. [3]

[1] Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, p. 110.

[2] Central Advisory Board of Education: Report on Post – War Educational Development, pp.8 and 18.

[3] Nurullah: History of Education, p. 298.

The neglect of vernaculars continued on in the new scheme of education during the second half of the 19th century. The Indian Education Commission (1882) also did not make any recommendations regarding the use of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction at the secondary stage. By the beginning of this century, when the public opinion became critical of the official policy towards the encouragement of vernaculars, the Government Resolution of 1904 explained the position with regard to the use of vernaculars and English as follows:

Except in certain of the larger towns... where it serves the purpose of a *lingua franca*, English has no place, and should have no place, in the scheme of primary education. It has never been part of the policy of government to substitute the English language for the vernacular dialects of the country. It is true that the commercial value which a knowledge of English comma-nds, and the fact that the final examinations of the high schools are conducted in English, cause the secondary schools to be subjected to a certain pressure to introduce prematurely both the teaching of English as a language and its use as a medium of instruction; while for the same reasons the study of the verna-cular in these schools is liable to be thrust into the background.[1]

Although it was asserted in this policy declaration that English should have no place in the scheme of primary education, the principle was not enforced in actual practice. Secondly, no one disputed the commercial value of English but that did not justify that the study of the vernaculars should be actively promoted. From the above declaration of policy, it is also obvious that although the Government had no intention of substituting English for the vernacular, they were not much interested in changing the existing policies with regard to the medium of instruction and the nature of the final examinations, which were responsible for "thrusting the study of vernaculars into the background."

Whatever advantages accrued from the preference given to the study of English, the comparative neglect of vernaculars adversely affected the quality of learning and education.

[1]Indian Educational Policy (Resolution of the Government of India, 11 March, 1904).

In this respect, a serious criticism of the educational policy arises from the fact that although the authorities had the evidence before them that the use of vernaculars resulted in a better quality of learning and education, they continued to emphasize the primary importance of English in the secondary school curriculum. The following statements indicate at least that there was no lack of evidence regarding the educational gain resulting from the use of the vernaculars:

1882: **It may be added that the experience of the Education Department in Bengal offers a remarkable contrast with that of officers in the Central Provinces...That which led the Bengal (Education) Department first of all to consider the feasibility of change (of employing verna-culars instead of English up to middle schools, i.e., junior high schools) was the marked superiority, at the Entrance Examination, of those pupils who had joined the high school with vernacular, compared with those who came with English scholarships.**[1]

1915: **I can only tell you that in my own experience and in the experience of many competent educationists, with whom I have discussed the question there is a markedly greater intelligence in the boy whose education has been conducted through the medium of vernacular until the highest classes of the school are reached than the boy who has had his education conducted in English in what used to be called in some provinces the Upper Middle School.**[2]

[1]Report of the Indian Education Commission, pp. 210 – 11.

[2]Sir Harcourt Butler, Member in Charge of Education, on the occasion of a Resolution introduced in the Imperial Legislature on 17th March, 1915, that the use of English as a medium of instruction be abandoned at both the primary and the secondary stage. The bill was lost due to the opposition of the official members. Nurullah: **op. cit.,** p. 356.

1929: It is possible that our suggestion of an intensive course in English at the end of the vernacular course may be useful in making easier the transition from the vernacular to an Anglo-vernacular school, especially as many witnesses have told us that the boy who has received a vernacular schooling, though he may be handicapped at first by his weakness in English, very often outstrips the Anglo-vernacular boy in the long run, in consequence of his better grasp of those general subjects which he has learnt through the vernacular.[1]

However, in spite of these successive official admissions based on actual experience, the attempts to replace English with vernacular as medium of instruction were officially opposed. It was only during the early twenties that the vernaculars "came gradually to be used as media of instruction at the middle school stage."[2] At the high school stage, the use of English as the medium of instruction is still not completely abandoned.

For the purpose of new educational reorganization, this past experience sufficiently indicates that it is educationally unsound to teach any language other than the vernacular at the primary stage, or to employ as medium of instruction any language other than the vernacular at the primary through the secondary stage.

(d) Lack of Unity Between the Primary and the Secondary Stages

In the present educational system there is a marked lack of unity between the primary and the secondary stages. Many factors have contributed to this disparity between the two stages during the course of their development. The distinction between the primary and the secondary schools was implicit in the basic educational policies. From the beginning, the high schools were established (i) to impart a higher form of instruction (ii) through English (iii) to the upper classes. In contrast to this privileged stage of education was the distinct

[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, pp. 110 – 11.

[2]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 355.

period of primary schooling (i) giving an inferior type of instruction (ii) through the local "dialect" (iii) to the masses. Secondly, the primary and the secondary schools developed separately in the scheme of new education. The secondary schools did not grow out of primary schools but were rather established as an appendage to college education. As their program and policies were designed to serve directly the purpose of higher education, they had little functional relationship with the primary schools. Thirdly, greater governmental support to secondary schools and the greater utility of the English Education that they imparted placed them on a distinctly higher plane than the primary schools which apparently due to inferior position and poor conditions were treated apart from the secondary schools. These factors widened the gulf between the primary and the secondary stages of education, which has not been bridged up to the present.

The most formidable factor that has operated against a better articulation between the primary and the secondary education is the disparity maintained between the vernaculars and English both with respect of their place in the school curricula and their use as media of instruction. A warning against such a disparity was sounded by the Educational Despatch as early as 1854. Referring to the two types of schools, on using English as the chief medium of instruction (Anglo-vernacular) and the other using the vernaculars (Vernacular Schools), the Despatch observed:

We include these Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular Schools in the same class, because we are unwilling to maintain the broad line of separation which at present exists between schools in which the media for imparting instruction differ. The knowledge conveyed is no doubt, at the present time, much higher in the Anglo-Vernacular than in the Vernacular Schools; but the difference will become less marked, and the latter more efficient, as the gradual enrichment of the vernacular languages in works of education allows their schemes of study to be enlarged, and as a more numerous class of school-masters is raised up, able to impart a superior education.[1]

[1]Quoted by Nurullah: History of Education, p. 298.

This was a very sound recommendation. The framers of the Despatch wanted to include both the English and the Vernacular Schools "in the same class" of secondary schools giving them the same status. The Vernacular Schools were already best suited to impart primary education; with the development of the vernaculars, they were expected to impart the same higher instruction through the mother tongue as was being imparted by the high schools through English. Having already a continuity downwards, the Despatch expected the Vernacular Schools to extend upwards to the high schools, thus uniting elementary and secondary stages into a well integrated system of vernacular education, in which the study of English as an important second language could fit in most conveniently. In this way the distinction between higher instruction through English for upper and "directing classes" and the inferior type of schooling through vernaculars for the masses, would have slowly disappeared, and the conflict between English and vernaculars would also have been resolved. But "instead of trying to **eliminate** the difference that existed between Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular Schools as the Despatch expected them to do, the [Provincial Education] Departments introduced reforms [measures] that tended to **widen** this difference. This will be clearly seen from the provincial schemes of secondary and primary education [as they existed by 1882]."[1]

Between 1858 and 1882, under the pressure of circumstances, government had opened its departmental primary schools while private enterprise had organized a number of similar schools on its own initiative. With the increasing need of feeding the secondary English schools, there was a marked trend, by 1882, **to attach** these vernacular grades to the English schools. In such an arrangement, it was natural that children, after completing the upper vernacular grade, should enter the lowest English grade and begin climbing up the ladder of English grades leading to the high school and eventually to the university.

This was a step towards continuity between primary vernacular schools and the secondary English schools. But the

[1]Nurullah, History of Education, p. 298. See pp. 298 – 301 for the cleavage between primary and secondary school systems in the provinces.

Indian Education Commission (1892), it seems, did not approve this new trend, and, on its own grounds, emphasized the distinct function of primary education, particularly as terminal education for the masses, which could not form an integral part of the English school ladder. The Commission recommended "that primary education be regarded as the instruction of masses through the vernacular in such subjects as will fit them for their position in life, and be not regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the university."[1]

This view of the Commission unfortunately rejected a possible continuity between the primary vernacular education and the secondary English education, which was being effected through a natural development of the two stages. The Despatch had established the high schools which, so far as the teaching of English was concerned, were extending downwards to the lower secondary stage, while the primary vernacular grades were gradually extending upwards. By the turn of the 19th century, this downward extension of English education and the upward extension of the primary education had already overlapped at the lower secondary or middle stage."[2] Under an alert departmental leadership the primary vernacular education could have been articulated with the secondary English education somewhere at the middle stage in accordance with the nature of this development in each province. But official policies continued to keep the vernacular education distinctly apart from the English education.

As a result, the downward extension of high schools which consolidated the teaching of English in the upper primary (junior) grades, became the lower secondary stage of the high schools, while the upward extension of the vernacular education came to form the vernacular middle stage. Thus, **two distinct blocks**, the vernacular block and the English block, came to comprise the scheme of primary-secondary education. Generally, the English block became synonymous with secondary education, and the primary (lower and upper) education block remained synonymous with the vernacular.

[1]Nurullah: History of Education, p. 395.

[2]Nurullah: History of Education, see chart on page 322a.

However, from an educational point of view, neither does the English block represent only secondary education, nor is the vernacular block limited to primary education. They overlap at the middle stage.

This two-block or two-track system, which began developing from the last quarter of the 19th century, is shown in Chart IV, as it looked by 1921. It has continued up to the present, and has, since its inception, created problems of **proper transfer** of pupils from one track to the other. The chart also indicates the different "transfer" practices as they existed in different provinces by 1921. In 1928, the Royal Commission on Agriculture pointed out the confusion in educational statistics due to the overlapping of the two blocks. The Commission also described the overlapping system as follows:

> **Immediately above the primary schools are the vernacular middle schools and the Anglo-vernacular middle schools. In some provinces these are termed English middle schools. The vernacular and Anglo-vernacular schools are parallel institutions. In Bombay and Madras (Provinces), vernacular middle schools are classed as primary schools and, in the other provinces, secondary schools have primary classes attached to them.**[1]

The report also called attention to a better articulation of primary and middle stages by referring to the example of Punjab province "where a marked improvement in the standard of primary education had been effected by the conversion of primary schools into lower middle with six classes, and lower middle schools into full middle schools with eight classes."[2]

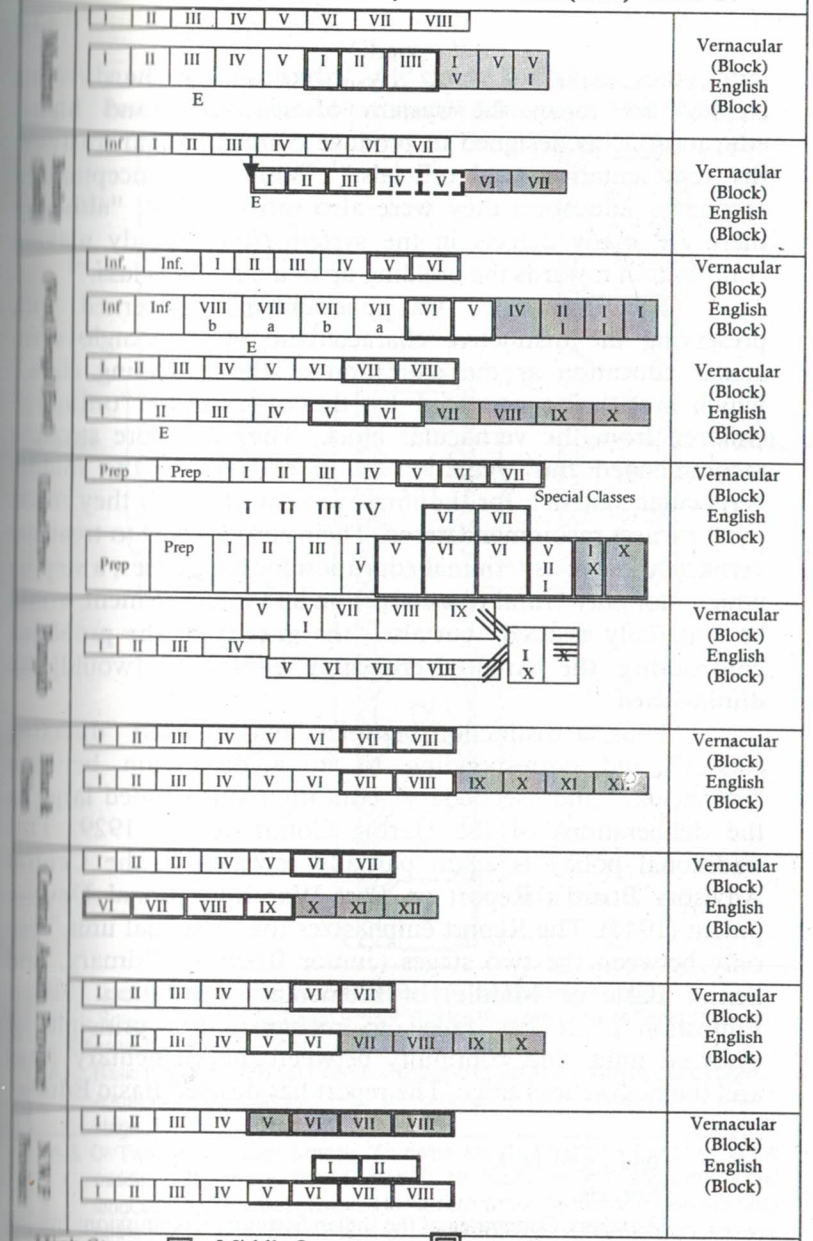
This observation was again in the direction of continuity between primary–secondary education as opposed to the compartmentalization of primary grades. But the Hartog Committee in their Report (1929) treated the elementary and secondary schools system distinctively as "Mass Education" and "Education for the Directing Classes."[3] As regards the

[1]Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture, p. 531.

[2]**Ibid.,** pp. 526 – 27.

[3]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, pp. 526 – 27, see chapters on pp. 332, 490, and the concepts underlying them.

Scheme of Primary & Secondary School Classes (1920)*Chart -IV



* Adapted from Nurullah pp.358a – 358b

latter, they explained that: "By 'education for the directing classes' we mean the system of secondary and higher education.... as designed to produce competent and trustworthy representatives and officials."[1] With this conception of secondary education they were also satisfied that, "although there are many defects in the system, it is already making contribution towards the building up of a directing class."[2]

The Committee was undoubtedly concerned with preserving the distinctive characteristic of the Anglo–vernacular education as the education of the "directing class," which was being menaced by the on–rush of "ordinary" children from the vernacular block. They therefore strongly recommended the "retention of more boys in the middle vernacular system", for the improvement of which they made most earnest recommendations. Their purpose was to treat the vernacular block as terminal education for the masses, a step by which, not only "rural reconstruction and improve-ment would be materially assisted" but also "**the gravity of the problems confronting the Anglo–Vernacular education** [would] **be dimin-ished**."[3]

Thus, a distinction between "masses" and "directing classes" and corresponding to it, a distinction between "vernacular" and "secondary" education still loomed large in the deliberations of the Hartog Committee in 1929. This traditional policy is again partially revealed in the Central Advisory Board's Report on Post–War Educational Development (1944). The Report emphasizes the "essential unit," but only between the two stages (Junior Basic, or Primary, and Senior Basic or Middle) of Elementary Education ("Basic Education").[4] It has failed to recognize the principle of essential unity and continuity between the elementary stage and the high school stage. The report has devised Basic Educa-

[1] **Ibid.,** p.90, fn, 4.

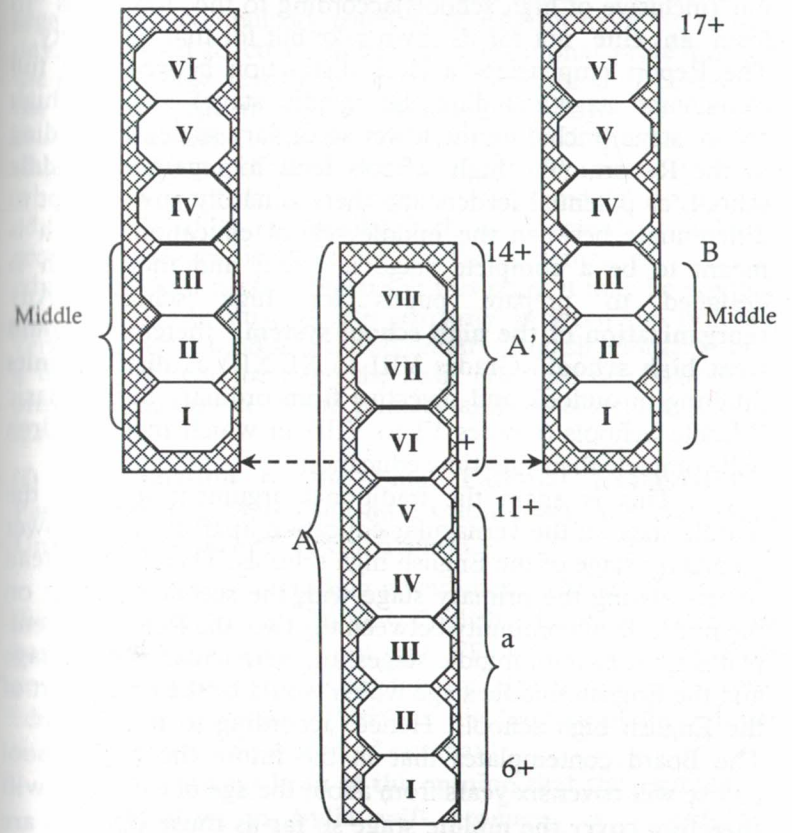
[2] **Loc. cit**

[3] Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, pp. 107, and 109 (italics supplied).

[4] Central Advisory Board of Education: Report on Post–War Educational Development, p. 7.

Chart – V

Re-organization of Primary & Secondary Schools under the Post-war Educational Development Scheme, pp. 7-8 &16-18



a – Junior Basic (Primary) School Grades I to V; no teaching of English

a' – Senior Basic (Middle Stage) School; Grades VI toVIII; study of English optional in areas where there may be strong demand for

A - Basic (Primary & Middle) Education comprising Junior and Senior Basic stages. A majority of the children to finish schooling with the completion of senior basic stage.

B & C- Two types of High Schools, Academic and Technical; both to cover in the middle stage and in both English to be taught as a compulsory second language; pupils to be transferred to the High School by means of selective tests at the end of Junior Basic Stage, i-e., at the age of 11+. Transfer from one type of high school to the other to be made as easy as possible. In a broad sense, the Academic High Schools to impart instruction in the arts and pure sciences while the Technical High School to provide training in the applied sciences and commercial subjects.

tion (elementary stage of eight years) as terminal education for the masses, while the "chief purpose of higher education"(inclusive of high schools)according to the Report, is "to form an elite not for its own sake but for that of society."[1] The Report emphasizes a clear distinction between the full elementary stage(including the middle stage) and the high school stage (including the lower secondary stage). According to the Report, "the high schools tend to regard all middle schools as potential feeders and there is hardly any attempt to differentiate between the middle school education, which is meant to be a complete stage in itself, and that which is designed to prepare pupils for high schools. **Any reorganization of the high school system,** therefore, **should treat high school** –Grades VIII to XI/XII) as **distinct units** differing in outlook and objective from ordinary Senior Basic (Middle Schools (Grades VI to VIII) in which most children will complete their full–time education."[2]

This is again the traditional argument to keep the middle stage of the vernacular education apart from the lower secondary stage of the English high schools. Therefore, instead of articulating the primary stage with the secondary stage on the principle of continuity between the two, the Report contemplates two separate middle stages, the vernacular middle stage and the English middle stage which would be the junior part of the English high schools. Hence, according to the Report: " The Board contemplates that in the future the high school course will cover six years from about the age of eleven. **It will therefore cover the middle stage so far as those children are concerned who are selected for admission to high schools.**[3] Thus, even this latest and the most progressive of all the official reports, still being entrenched in the past tradition, had devised two educational ladders as is shown by the accompanying chart (v). It has provided for a selective transfer mainly from the Junior Basic Stage of the Vernacular block to the English high schools ladder which is distinctly for the intelligent "elite."[1]

[1]**Ibid.,** p. 15

[2]Central Advisory Board of Education: Reports on Post – War Educational Development, p. 15(italics supplied).

[3]**Ibid.,** p. 15 (italics supplied)

It is unfortunate that the short–sighted policies with regard to the compulsory teaching of English have, up to this day, continued to create numerous educational problems. At the present stage, it is the unnecessary imposition of English at the middle stage that is a stumbling block in the way of bridging the gulf between the primary and the secondary stages. Teaching of English will have to be eliminated from the whole elementary stage (lower primary and middle) if a unified educational ladder comprising both the elementary and the secondary stages is built up in the schemes of national education. As a passing remark at this point it may be pointed out that it is because of this disparity between the primary vernacular education and the secondary English education that a wide gulf exists between the basic concepts of preparation, prestige, and service of the primary and the secondary school teachers.

(f) Domination of the Final External Examinations, Particularly the Matriculation Examination, and the Rigid Uniformity of Secondary Curriculum

The idea of recruiting government officials was one of the chief objectives of the new English education. Macaulay had convincingly pointed out that: "Those who learn English are willing to pay us". As regards the advantages of the new education for government service, the framers of the Educational Despatch (1854) pointed out that:

> **We have always been of the opinion that the spread of education in India will produce a greater efficiency in all branches of administration by enabling you to obtain the services of intelligent and trustworthy persons in every department of Government; and on the other hand, we believe that the numerous vacancies of different kinds which have constantly to be filled up, may afford a stimulus to education.**[2]

[1]The Report also provides "for the transfer of suitable children from the Senior Basic (Middle) to the High Schools at some later stage, particularly where they show definite signs of late development." (**Ibid.,** p.20.) But it is not explained how these lately transferred pupils will fit in High Schools where the teaching of English is to be compulsory.

[2]Quoted by Nurullah: History of Education p. 171 (italics supplied).

This was a prophecy which proved true. One of the chief objects of secondary education, which became synonymous with English education, was to prepare the youth for jobs in the ever–widening field of state administration. The Matriculation Examination at the completion of high school courses became the main entrance to government offices. By 1882 it became the main objective of secondary education. Therefore, the Indian Education Com-mission (1882), finding the curriculum of the secondary schools purely literary in character serving the needs of the Matriculation Examination, recommended a bifurcation of curriculum at the high school stage into two divisions–an academic division "leading to entrance examinations of the universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or non–literary pursuits."[1] As a result of this recommendation attempts were made in some provinces during the following two decades to introduce vocational courses leading to a School Final Examination. But as these examinations neither qualified for entrance to colleges nor to Government services, the scheme of vocational courses and the alternative examinations did not prove successful. As the Matriculation Examination gave both these advantages, its dominance continued over the secondary school curriculum.

The Government Resolution of 1904 admitted that "The purely literary course, qualifying as it does both for the university and for government employment, continues to attract the great majority of pupils, and more practical studies are at present but little in request."[2] In order "to promote diversified types of secondary education," the Resolution urged that the "best solution .... will be found in adapting to Indian conditions the system of taking examinations, held at the conclusion of the secondary course.... Such examinations would not dominate the courses of study, but would be adapted to them ... they would be of a more searching character than the present Entrance Test, and the certificate given at their close would be evidence that the holder had received a sound

[1]Report of the Indian Education Commission, **op. cit.,** pp. 220 – 21.

[2]Indian Educational Policy, Resolution of the Government of India of 11 March, 1904, para. 23.

education in a recognized school, that he had borne a good character, and that he had really learnt what the school professed to have taught him."[1]

These were the sound recommendations and, provisionally, they inspired new experiments in the reorganization of secondary schools curricula. The best experiment on the lines of these reorganization was that of the Madras Province:

i). The secondary school curriculum was differentiated into three divisions A,B & C. Division A constituted the common core of English , Vernacular and Elementary Mathematics, which no school was expected to neglect and in which a public examination was held. Division B consisted of subjects expected to be useful to everyone. No school was expected to omit them but there was no public examination in them which might "prevent variety and originality of treatment," and "impair their value" by inducing "cramming". Besides, it was impossible to say "if any fixed quantity of knowledge in them is necessary for entrance in any career. Division C consisted of numerous electives: "proficiency in one or more of which is plainly necessary for entering the university, a technical institution, or business or is recognized as forming part of a good school education." It was expected that schools will increasingly provide information as to the progress made by a pupil who claims to have to some extent specialized in any of these subjects a public examinations is held in them."

ii). As for the entrance to universities and the government service, the school provided a certificate in which attendance for not less than two terms along with school marks was recorded for the pupil's progress in Division B; entries of marks obtained at the public examinations along with "attendance for a minimum number of days for a year in each of the higher forms" were shown for the purpose of divisions A and C.

[1]**Ibid.,** para. 24.

iii). "The certificates (did) not contain any statement that a pupil (had) or (had) not 'passed' the public examination." The certificates gave the average marks in various subjects in the whole Province as well as in the particular school as a basis of comparison.[1]

This experiment proved temporarily successful. The certificate awarded, supplanted the Matriculation Examination while the differentiated curriculum provided for a variety of courses to suit the needs, interests and abilities of the pupils. A similar type of experiment with School Leaving Certificates Examinations was carried on in the United Provinces where the certificates awarded admitted to the university as well as to government employment. In the United Provinces the experiment had one more advanced feature in so far as no textbooks were prescribed, not even in English; it was left to the discretion of the Head Masters to select any text books and obtain the formal sanction of the Provincial Department to use them.

In Bombay, School Final Examinations were instituted but they qualified only for government service while the Matriculation Examinations qualified for entrance to the universities.[2] This arrangement in Bombay was a real obstacle to the success of School Final Examinations and Certificates. The Government Resolution of 1913, which reviewed the educational policy following the above experiments during 1905–12, reiterated the main recommendations of the earlier Resolution of 1904 and also stated that:

> It would be advantageous if the school final examination could, in case of those who propose to follow a university career, be made a sufficient test of fitness to enter the university. Failing this, the best arrangements would appear to be that the matriculation candidates should pass in certain subjects in the school final examination and be examined by the university with regard to any further requirements that may be deemed necessary.

[1]Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Education in India (1907 – 12), para. 219.

[2]Nurullah: **op. cit.,** pp. 342 – 48.

According to this suggestion only those who wished to go to the university would have been obliged to satisfy the university with regard to any of its requirements.

The above recommendations and experiments which aimed at a functional adjustment of examinations to the secondary school curriculum were educationally sound. But they proved ineffective in eliminating the evil of Matriculation and improving the quality of secondary school curriculum. The chief cause of this failure was the government's insistence, contrary to all their assertions,[1] on the Matriculation Certificate as a qualification for employment in government offices. As a result, the pupils preferred, as usual, the academic courses leading to Matriculation. Secondly, the vocational courses were probably introduced in the curriculum without any provision for the vocational guidance service which in the modern educational systems contributes to the success of vocational education by providing occupational information, proper preparation and the subsequent placement and follow–up services. Since no smooth transition from the completion of vocational courses to occupational employment was provided, the pupils preferred to prepare for Matriculation, success in which automatically guaranteed either a job in government offices or entrance to college. Thirdly, even in these new schemes, the evil of public examination still dominated.[2] Since there was no escape from an external examination, results of which definitely counted and cramming for which was unavoidable, the pupils preferred the evil of Matriculation which had additional advantages. Because of these factors these useful experiments lost their vitality and succumbed to the pressure of the Matriculation Examination.

By 1929 the Hartog Committee surveyed the situation and reached the following conclusions:

[1]c.f. "It would be of great benefit to the universities if the government would direct that the matriculation examination should not be accepted as a preliminary of full test for any post in government service.: Indian Educational Policy, Resolution of Government of India, 1913.

[2]In the Madras experiment described earlier, there were public examinations for the subjects in Division A and Division C.

> The reason for the uniformity of the course in the middle English and high schools is not far to seek; it is the influence of the matriculation and all that this means to the Indian boy, both as an immediate qualification for service, and as a gate to a university course and the possession of a degree as a higher qualification for service. The lure of Government service through matriculation is still potent. In some provinces a School Final Examination has been set up, entirely distinct from the matriculation examination with the double objects of providing an alternative qualification for entry into Government service and of widening the secondary curriculum by permitting the inclusion of vocational and pre–vocational subjects. But this innovation has been to a great extent a failure; for in the provinces in which it has been introduced the number of candidates for matriculation has been largely in excess of those for the School Final Examination. We cannot say how far it is due in particular cases to the continued insistence of the Government on matriculation as a minimum qualification for almost every form of public employment. **But it is this practice, no doubt, which maintains, and strengthens the belief in matriculation as the goal, as the only goal of Anglo–Vernacular education, and conflicts the courses in the high schools to the narrow path leading to it.**[1]

The Hartog Committee also exposed the myth that Matriculation sets a "standard" of achievement by weeding out a large number of misfits through failure. According to the Committee:

> The number of failures is in many cases great. Is the standard, considered as a measure of attainment and capacity of the successful candidates, too high? The general trend of evidence .... shows that on the contrary it is in many cases deplorably low; and that where the standard of passes is higher than elsewhere

[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, **op. cit.,** p. 105.

> the standard of attainment is correspondingly lower..... Clearly, where this occurs, there must be something radically wrong at an earlier stage, due either to defective teaching or organization of the schools, or to unsuitability of the courses to the natural aptitude of the pupils.[1]

The Committee, however, did not offer any useful suggestions for eliminating the evil of Matriculation. They rather found fault predominantly with the organization of the school system and recommended that many pupils who were coming to high schools should be kept away by retaining them at the vernacular middle school stage.[2]

The latest Report on the Post–War Educational Development (1944) also hardly offers any useful suggestions regarding the subject of examinations. The Report, for want of time and also because of a pending investigation of the subject, preferred to be silent on this crucial problem. However, according to this Report, "while a national system of education will no doubt still have to have examinations of some kind, it seems highly desirable to get (the new educational) system started and then devise examinations to suit it."[3] In spite of this progressive view, the actual thinking of the report is dominated by the idea of the final examinations, as will be shown hereafter. As regards curriculum, the Report has suggested two types of high schools--the Academic High Schools and the Technical High Schools, and gives a comprehensive list of subjects which are to be studied in each one of them with the "proviso (that) the individual pupil's course should be settled in the light of his own aptitudes and interests and of the requirements of his probable future occupation."[4]

Regarding the final examinations, the recommendations of the Report are disappointing . After referring to the "vital importance of a careful selection of students for university

[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report **op. cit.,** p. 106

[2]**Ibid.,** vide pp. 106 – 07.

[3]Central Advisory Board of Education: Report on Post – War Educational Development , p. 4.

[4]**Ibid.,** p. 18

university education," the Report says:

> The joint committee of the Central Advisory Board and the Inter–University Board, investigated in 1942, the question of the School Leaving and Matriculation Examinations, was of the opinion that at the end of the High School Stage, "There should be one examination designed with a two–fold purpose (i) of testing the satisfactory completion of a course suited to the requirements of those who will pass directly from High Schools to occupations of various kinds, and (ii) of testing the suitability of those who desire admission to the University." This Committee was also in favour of a uniform range of subjects both for the School Leaving Certificate and Matriculation Examinations but felt that entrants for the latter should be encouraged to do specialized study towards the end of the High School Stage. It was hoped that such an examination would lead to greater uniformity, since the standards set by the present School Leaving Certificate and Matriculation Boards vary widely at the moment from place to place.[1]

In holding these views, it seems that the Joint Committee has not only failed to benefit from past experience but also disregarded the basic principles of sound education. With their implicit faith in an external examination, their queer suggestion of one and the same examination determining both occupational efficiency and academic proficiency, their idea of a uniform range of subjects, their implied notion of those subjects being adapted to the requirements of examination and their approval of examinations as a standard contributing to the uniformity of curriculum–the views of the Committee fit into the past rather than into the present and future development of a sound system of secondary education. The crucial problem of external examinations which still dominate the curricula, therefore, remains to be solved for the reconstruction of a national system of education.

[1]**Ibid.,** p. 25

Chapter IV

TEACHER EDUCATION DURING THE BRITISH PERIOD

The first **official** proposal for a need of a "school for educating teachers" was made in the province of Madras by Munro in his Minute of 10th March, 1826.[1] But it was in the Educational Despatch of 1854 that the need for a systematic program for the training of school teachers was for the first time emphasized. Following the recommendations of this Despatch a beginning was made towards establishing a few normal schools. By the beginning of this century greater attention was centered on improving the quality of education and teaching in both the primary and the secondary schools. The Central Government Resolutions of 1904 and 1913 offered comprehensive proposals for extending and improving the training of primary and secondary teachers. Following these two Resolutions, the training institutions have steadily increased in number due to the official and private efforts. However, no organized program of teacher education has been carried out either on a central or provincial level. The training institutions have been opened or closed sporadically during the past one hundred years. Some significant aspects of this historical development of teacher education during the past century are discussed under the following convenient headings.

1. Disparity Between the Preparation of Primary and Secondary Teachers

A significant feature of the initial stage of development of teacher education was that no wide distinction was made

[1]Sharp H.: Selections from Educational Records, Part I, pp. 74 – 75.

between the preparation of primary teachers for the vernacular schools and secondary teachers for the English schools. Probably this was because of a new viewpoint emphasized by the framers of the Educational Despatch of 1854, who said:

> **We include these Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular schools in the same class, because we are unwilling to maintain the broad line of separation that exists at the present time between schools in which media for imparting instruction differ.**[1]

Following the recommendations of this Despatch, therefore, no separate training schools were established to train the primary and the secondary teachers as is stated in the second Educational Despatch of 1859. According to this second Despatch, "the normal school at Madras has been constituted to furnish masters both for Anglo-Vernacular and for Vernacular schools.... No separate training institution has yet been established at Bombay, but normal classes have been formed in connection with the colleges and principal English schools within the presidency, most of which are intended to supply teachers for Anglo-Vernacular as well as Vernacular schools."[2]

This good initial trend was subsequently reversed as the disparity between the primary vernacular and the secondary English education grew stronger and stronger on account of many factors which have already been discussed in the previous chapter. The result was that a great disparity came to be maintained between the qualifications, preparation, and the service conditions of primary and secondary teachers. This disparity exists up to the present and is reflected in the difference between the preparation and prestige of primary and secondary teachers. Because of little importance given to the value of primary vernacular education, the preparation of primary teachers is still in its preliminary stage of development.

2. The Academic vs. Professional Preparation of Teachers

The second general trend in the development of teacher education consists in the main emphasis that has all along been

[1]Vide supra p. 142.

[2]Quoted by Nurullah: History of Education, p. 434.

placed on the academic preparation[1] of teachers rather than on their professional preparation. This trend has remained dominant up to the present, although within the last three decades progress has also been made in strengthening some professional contents in the preparation of secondary teachers.

At the initial stage, the emphasis on the preparation in school subjects was mainly due to the needs of the new education which aimed at spreading the European knowledge. It was essential that "the teachers themselves must first acquire Western knowledge before they could impart it to others." By 1854, therefore, the expression "training of teachers" meant their "general education in Western know-ledge, that is to say, in such subjects as Algebra, Geometry, Astronomy and History of England rather than instruction in the practical art of teaching."[2]

This remained the primary objective of teacher education during the next thirty years following the Educational Despatch of 1854, when the new school system imparting instruction in new subjects was extended and consolidated. By 1882, when the Indian Education Commission started its deliberations, there was a controversy whether it was necessary to train the teachers, even of secondary English schools, in the principles and practices of teaching. According to Nurullah:

> **One section held that there was no need to train secondary teachers. It was argued that "the best way to teach a man to teach Arithmetic, is to teach him arithmetic; and if he knows Arithmetic, the most efficie-nt way of expenditure of your extra tuition upon him will be to teach him Algebra, rather than to talk to him about teaching arithmetic." The other section argued that a grounding in the general principles of teaching, no amount of the knowledge of the subject alone can**

[1]That is, their preparation in the subject that they will teach in the school. The term "general education" used in some reports is misleading in the sense that in its present connotation "general education" has a broader significance.

[2]Nurullah: **op. cit.,** p. 433.

alone can help a teacher of secondary schools to "engage and keep the attention of a whole class, to correct and check the wandering or listless scholar, to put together in their due order the materials of a lesson, and to select those illustrations which give life to instruction and arouse the interest of the pupil"; that those who argue that "a young man who has sat under good professors for four normal schools can teach as to the methods of instruction and class management" seemed to forget "that there is, or ought to be, a wide difference in the methods adopted in a class of school boys and those pursued with young men at college; and that normal training was a definite asset to every teacher although it could not be a substitute for natural aptitude or enthus-iasm.[1]

Although the issue was enthusiastically debated, the general view among the majority of educators in British India, following the similar contemporary controversy in England, was that the training of teachers could mainly consist in their sound academic education rather than their induction into any abstract principles of pedagogy. The Indian Education Commission, therefore, merely recommended:

(i) that an examination in the principles and practices of teaching be instituted, success in which should thereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher in any secondary school, government or aided;
(ii) that graduates wishing to attend a course of instruction in a normal school in the principles and practice of teaching be required to undergo a shorter course of training than others. [2]

It is obvious that these recommendations of the Commission were limited in scope, and besides, they applied mainly to the preparation of secondary teachers. The preparation of primary teachers remained mostly confined to their further education in the primary school subjects. According to

[1]**Ibid.,** pp. 314 – 15.
[2]**Ibid.,** p. 315.

the Quinquennial Review of 1917-22, the main problem involved in the training of primary teachers still was to improve their general education.[1]

During the first two decades of this (twentieth) century, the improvement of teacher education received greater attention due to the main official concern with improving the quality of education. By this time the new educational system had sufficiently advanced and the prospective teachers were sufficiently familiar with the school subjects which were "new" by 1854. The problem at this stage was that the teachers should know how to teach these subjects particularly when the defects of secondary education were being attributed on all sides to bad methods of teaching. Therefore, it was proposed that the courses in "methods of teaching" and "practice teaching" should be included in the training programs. In 1882, the Indian Education Commi-ssion had merely proposed a course in "principles of teaching" while no practicing schools were attached even to the institutions for the training of secondary teachers.[2]

The Central Government's Resolution of 1904, emphasized the "professional" side of the training of secondary teachers as follows:

> If the teaching in secondary schools is to be raised to a higher level; if the pupils are to be cured of their tendency to rely upon learning notes and textbooks by heart; if, in a word, European knowledge is diffused by the methods proper to it, then it is most necessary that the teachers should themselves be trained in the art of teaching. For the graduates, the course of instruction will be chiefly directed towards imparting to them a knowledge of the principles which underline the art of teaching and some degree of technical skills in the practice of the art. For others, the course should embrace the extension, consolidation and revision of their general studies. The training in the theory of teaching should be closely associated with its practice, and for this purpose good practicing schools should be

[1]Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Education (1917 – 22), vol. 1, para 267.
[2]Report of the Indian Education Commission, **op. cit.,** p. 134.

attached to each college[1]

The Government Resolution of 1913 recommended that in case of normal schools for the training of primary teachers "adequate practicing schools are a necessary adjunct, and the size of the practicing schools will greatly determine the size of the normal school."[2]

It is obvious from the above recommendations that the emphasis was mainly placed on "methods of teaching" and "practice teaching". As these recommendations were gradually implemented in the training colleges for secondary teachers, methodology became the dominant feature of the professional part of preparation. By 1918 methods of teaching became the main objective of training in some of the leading secondary teachers training colleges. For instance, in the Teachers College Saidpat, Madras, the kind of training imparted at this time was reported as follows:

> **Collegiate training is concerned mainly with the inculcating methods of teaching special subjects, such as mathematics, history, geography, science and English , while undergraduates are given instructions in the methods pertaining to the teaching of all subjects of school curriculum in the lower forms and classes.[3]**

The most emphasized part of methodology was that of "methods of teaching English" :

> **In the quinquannium 1913–17, 484 teachers passed the L.T. degree examination. All of them received a training in the methods of teaching English, and, with a few exceptions, underwent a course in methods appropriate to the teaching of the optional subjects in which they took their B.A. degree.[4]**

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[1]Indian Education Policy (Resolution of the Government of India, 11 March, 1904).

[2]**Indian** Educational Policy (Resolution of the Government of India, 21 February 1913).

[3]Duncan & Meckenzie : The Training of Teachers: Occasional Reports, No. 8, Bureau of Education of India, 1918, p. 12.

[4]**Ibid.,** p.29

In another institution, the Allahabad Training College (U.P), an elementary course in educational psychology and a course in history of education had been introduced at this time (1918), but the following statement of the college authorities indicates that these courses had to be defended against opposition:-

> **The value of the history of education and psychology in a training college curriculum is sometimes questioned, and it is therefore perhaps desirable to state what we regard as the main aims of these courses. Our experi-ence is that a study of the lives of the great educational reformers has a stimulating effect on students. In the course on the principles of teaching we do not attempt a deep study of psychology.[1]**

These statements about the curricula of the two most advanced colleges for the training of secondary teachers in the whole country indicate that the Educational Policies of 1904 and 1913 had not in fact much advanced the cause of *professional* training of teachers by 1918. In fact, the introduction of professional subjects in the curricula was hardly being appreciated.

During the past three decades the courses in methods of teaching have been firmly established. In the more advanced institutions, courses in educational psychology and philosophy as well as in the organization and management of class instruction have also become a part of the curriculum. Moreover, a fixed number of lessons in practice teaching are required in every institution although the quality of practice teaching is generally poor in a majority of training institutions. But these advances in the professional preparation are limited to the secondary teachers colleges. The training of primary teachers is still mainly concerned with their further training in the school subjects.

At the present stage, therefore, the distinctly professional preparation has been advanced to some degree only in the secondary teachers training colleges. It is limited in scope and mainly emphasizes the various methods of teaching.

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[1]**Ibid.,** p. 71.

Thus far, little attention has been given to the professional preparation of the primary teachers.

3. Extension of Teacher Education and the Quality of Training

The number of institutions for the training of both the primary and the secondary teachers has considerably increased since the recommendations of the Educational Despatch of 1854. This quantitative growth taken by itself is a comforting factor but, when measured in terms of time it has taken and also as compared to the actual educational need of the school system, it appears to be disappointing. The increase in the number of training institutions has been very slow, and even at the present stage the facilities for the training of teachers are far too limited as compared to the need of the existing school system. Moreover, the quality of training imparted in the training schools and colleges for the preparation of primary teachers is generally poor; it is also far from satisfactory in the secondary teachers colleges when compared to the generally acceptable standards of teacher education in the advanced countries.

(a) The number of institutions for the training of primary teachers increased more rapidly than that of secondary teachers training college, but, due to the low initial qualifycations of the prospective primary teachers, the quality of their training remained inferior.

Following the recommendations of the Educational Despatch of 1854, normal schools were established for the training of primary teachers. By 1882 there were in all 106 normal schools with an enrollment of 3,886 teachers.[1] "In 1921–22, there were, in British India including Burma, 926 training institutions for men (with an enrollment of 22,774 students) and 146 training institutions for women (with an enrollment of 4,157 students) ... The percentage of trained teachers works out 38 of the whole."[2] But what was actually meant by the expression "trained teachers" at this period is elucidated by the following statement of the Quinquennial Review of 1917–22:

[1]Report of the Indian Education Commission, **op. cit.,** p. 134.

[2]Nurullah: **op. cit.,** pp. 439 – 40.

> **Any generalizations about the number of trained elementary teachers in India and the percentage which they bear to the total number of teachers are misleading. The different provinces vary widely in the qualifications required of the candidates for training, the character of the institutions in which the training is given and the length of the training courses. The term "trained teacher" consequently has a very uncertain significance.**[1]

By 1927, according to the report of the Hartog Committee, 44 per cent of the total number of teachers in primary schools for boys and 49.5 per cent of those in primary schools for girls in British India including Burma, were trained.[2] According to the Committee: "The fact that only 44 per cent of the total number of teachers in primary schools for boys are trained is serious enough, but this defect is accentuated by the low initial qualifications of those who have been selected for training.[3] On the basis of statistics for each province showing the general qualifications of those teachers who had received training and were teaching in boys' primary schools in 1927, the Committee reached the following conclusions:-

> **Thus, out of a total of 285,319 teachers in the provinces there were only 79,000 trained teachers (or 28 per cent) who had themselves completed the middle course (grades V to VIII). A very large proportion of teachers possess general qualifications which are scarcely superior to those of the pupils in the highest class of the primary stage.**[4]

By 1937 the percentage of teachers (for boys schools) according to Nurullah, rose "from 44 in 1927 to 57 in 1937."[5] Five years later, according to the report of the Central Advisory

[1]Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Education, 1917 – 22, Vol. 1, Para 267.

[2]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, **op. cit.,** pp. 66 and 176.

[3]**Ibid.,** p.66.

[4]**Loc. cit.,**

[5]Nurullah: **op. cit.,** p. 553

Board of Education, by 1940–41 there were 41,518,018 teachers "in the existing schools, primary and secondary, of whom 210,496 were untrained."[1] According to these figures about 40.6 per cent should be untrained and 59.4 per cent were trained. But since these figures also included secondary teachers, in whom the percentage of trained teachers was higher than that of primary teachers, it seems that little progress was made in raising the percentage of trained primary teachers which was 57 in 1937.

The general qualifications of teachers were still low by 1941–42. According to the Central Advisory Board of Education, out of 640 teacher–training institutions of all kinds, primary as well as secondary, "612 were training schools which admitted class (grade) IV and middle pass candidates for training as teachers for primary and lower secondary schools."[2]

Thus, mostly the general qualifications of the primary vernacular school teachers were still very low according to this latest report on the educational condition in British India.

(b). The extension of facilities for the training of **secondary English school teachers** proceeded slowly. The main concept underlying the training of teachers during the second half of the 19th century was to strengthen their education in the school subjects. Because the academic qualifications of the secondary English teachers were sufficiently high, it seems that the authorities were not much concerned about their special training. Whatever the reasons, by 1881–82, there were only two institutions for the training of secondary teachers, one at Madras (established in 1856) and the other at Lahore (established in 1880). Admission to the former required a minimum qualification of Matriculation, and to the latter that of "First Year Examination in Arts"(first year of college). There were no practicing schools attached to these institutions and, moreover, all students were put through the same courses irrespective of their individual background of general education.[3]

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[1]Central Advisory Board of Education : Report on Post – War Educational Development, **op. cit.,** p. 48

[2]**Loc. cit.**

[3]Nurullah: **op. cit.,** p. 301

By 1902 four more training colleges had been established, and there were in all six training colleges for secondary teachers. Subsequently, due to the increasing official concern for the improvement of secondary education, facilities for the training of teachers were further extended. By 1921–22, the number of training colleges for secondary (English) teachers had increased to thirteen.[1] During the next decade three more colleges were opened, and in 1932–33 there were in all sixteen colleges for the training of secondary teachers in the whole of British India including Burma. The following table shows the increase in the number of training institutions during the thirties:-

The Number of Secondary Teachers Training Colleges in India, including Burma from 1932/33 to 1938/39.[2]

Year Under Report	No. of training colleges		Total No of students under training
1932 -33	16		1220
1933–34	15		1273
1934–35	15	(Peshawar Tr. college converted to Tr.School)	1311
1935–36	16	(In Assam B.T. co–classes opened).	1311
1936 - 37	17		1325
1937–38	18		1415
1938–39	19		1568

It is clear from the above figures that the increase in the number of training colleges was slower during the pre–war decade. The Annual Report for the year 1933–34 said: "There has been little change in the condition of the training colleges in India and the statistics for them remain practically the same as in the previous year."[3] The same note of inertia was again sounded in the Annual Report of 1937–38 which declared that the "percentage of trained teachers in secondary schools remained practically the same as last year(1836–37) vis. 56.6."[4]

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[1]**Ibid.,** p. 338.

[2]Figures from Annual Reports on Education in India (Br.) Government of India Bureau of Publication, Delhi, for the years 1932 – 33/1938 – 39.

[3]The Annual Report on Education, Government of India Bureau of Publication, for the year 1937 – 38, p. 35.

[4]The Annual Report on Education, Government of India Bureau of Publication, for the year 1933 – 34, p. 35.

The situation in 1838–39 deteriorated further: "The percentage of trained men teachers unfortunately decreased from 56.6 in 1937–38 to 56.2 during the year under report", and that "since 1935–36 this percentage has been reduced by 1.2 per cent which is a serious matter." The reason for the regrettable decline," said this Report. "... is the inadequate provision of facilities for training."[1] The situation seems to have improved by 1940–41. "During 1940–41 the Training Colleges for training graduates, numbered 28 and in that year they trained 1413 teachers."[2] But, while the number of these training colleges increased from nineteen in 1938–39 to twenty eight in 1940–41, the number of trainees decreased from 1568 in 1938–39 to 1413 in 1940–41. In the latest official report, the Central Advisory Board of Education has shown on the basis of facts and figures that "the number of training institutions that exist at present is utterly insufficient" for the needs of the country.[3]

In so far as Pakistan is concerned, there are today only two major public institutions for the training of secondary teachers, one in Dacca and the other in Lahore. There are two more institutions, one at Peshawer and the other at Karachi opened lately (in 1947), which are expected to expand and develop into major provincial training colleges. But even these four institutions along with some training schools of less importance are "utterly insufficient" for the needs of the existing school system in Pakistan.

Such limited facilities as were available for the training of secondary English teachers during the British period were again almost monopolized by the government high schools. Firstly this was because the training colleges were mostly established and controlled by the Government and secondly, the officials were mainly concerned with the improvement of the quality of education primarily in government schools. The Government Policy Resolution of 1913 had declared that "the policy of the Government in regard to Secondary English Schools is .... to improve the few existing Government schools

[1]**Ibid.,** for the year 1938 – 39, p. 45.

[2]Central Advisory Board of Education: Report on Post War Educational Development, p. 48.

[3]**Ibid.,** p. 48.

by .. employing only graduate or trained teachers."[1] The benefit of the limited training facilities, therefore, largely went to the teachers from government schools while the teachers in private schools remained mostly untrained. Almost a decade after the above declaration of the Policy Resolution of 1913, the situation regarding the trained teachers in the government and private schools by 1921–22 was as follows:-

> **In Government Schools in the United Provinces two–thirds of the teachers are trained and the proportion of the trained to the untrained teachers in secondary schools under private management is about 1 to 8.**
> **In Bombay, only a few of the teachers of English and those almost entirely employed in Government Schools have received training of any kind.**

In the Central Provinces, the increase in the percentage of trained teachers in High Schools from 26.5 to 67.5 is remarkable. Of 190 teachers in Government Schools in this Province, 167 are graduates.[2]

This situation has not changed substantially up to the present. The benefit of the limited facilities for the training of secondary teachers largely goes to the government sponsored teachers from the government schools.

(c) Apart from the slow expansion of teacher education and inadequate training facilities at every stage of its development, the quality of education imparted in the training institutions also has not been satisfactory. It has already been pointed out that the main emphasis has been continuously placed upon a further education in school subjects while the professional part of preparation has remained dominated by methodology. In 1929 the Hartog Committee referring to the training of primary teachers said, "If the quality of the candidates applying for selection for training is low, so also is the quality of training. In most provinces the period of training is too short, the curriculum is narrow and the teaching staff is

[1]Indian Educational Policy, Resolution of the Government of India of 21st February, 1913.

[2]Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Education, 1917 – 22, Vol. 1, pp. 94 – 5.

inadequately qualified."[1] Regarding the training of secondary teachers the Committee observed:

From the evidence before us there appears to be great difference in the quality of the training colleges in the several provinces. In some the methods used are conventional and obsolete, in others, valuable work is being done... On the other hand, we feel that enough cannot be done in the short space of nine months, which is all that is usually available, to uproot the old methods of teaching to which many of the students are accustomed.[2]

This observation shows that even the training in the methods of teaching, which had lately dominated the curricula of secondary teachers colleges, was mostly poor in quality.

The situation has hardly changed thereafter. In 1944, the Central Advisory Board of Education said in their report that "The type of training which these institutions give is often open to serious criticism. It fails to keep pace with modern ideas in education and there is insufficient coordination between theory and practice. The curriculum tends to be rigid and the conditions of training rarely afford the student in training or even his teachers an opportunity of ascertaining definitely whether or not he is really fitted for teaching. The result is that many unsuitable candidates who should ordinarily be 'weeded out,' find their way into the teaching profession".[3]

4. Obstacles in the Way of Improving the Quality of Teacher Training and Classroom Instruction

The above observation of the Central Advisory Board of Education indicates that the quality of training has been far from satisfactory even at this late stage of teacher education. The blame, however, does not lie entirely with the training institutions because the training curricula as well as the final examinations are either controlled by the Departments of Edu-

[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, **op. cit.,** p. 76.

[2]**Ibid.,** p. 117.

[3]Central Advisory Board of Education: Report on Post – War Educational Development, **op. cit.,** p. 48.

cation or by the Universities. The authoritarian administrative policies of the universities and Education Departments have been mainly responsible for a general indifference to the problems of education, poor planning, conventional thinking, aversion to educational change, and lack of experimentation -- which have all hindered the progress and improvement of teachers education and also of every other branch of education.

Some of the main obstacles of the improvement of teacher education have been as follows:-

(a) Little attention to the problem of proper recruitment and selection of prospective teachers:- No organized programs or consistent policies have been adopted for a proper recruitment and selection of prospective teachers. The only basis for the employment of new teachers has been the lowest minimum general qualifications. This policy has disregarded the basic fact that every person with a given general qualifications cannot prove to be a good teacher.

(b) Defective Curricula:- The curricula of the training schools and colleges for both the primary and secondary teachers have been narrow in their scope and objectives. They have been little related to the needs of the individual student teacher and to the improvement of the existing school systems. For instance, the teachers of the primary schools which are the main agencies of mass education, must know how to work with the adult and illiterate parents and with the village committees in the rural areas. But their training is little related to these problems. In 1929, the Hartog Committee had emphasized that the need for working with the adults and participating in village uplift and community work required changes in the school curriculum.[1] The Committee also pointed out that "approximately over 60 per cent of the primary schools in British India are single teacher schools."[2] These problems had a direct bearing on the training of primary teachers but little was done to adjust the training curricula to these needs of the primary school system.

Similarly, the training of secondary English teachers is neither adjusted to the needs of the individual student teacher

[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, **op. cit.,** pp. 49 and 80.

[2]**Ibid.,** p. 60

nor to those of the secondary school system. The professional part of the training has primarily emphasized the various methods of teaching the school subjects; in some institutions even "the methods used are conventional and obsolete." Secondly, there has been no provision in the curricula for a broad general education which is essential for the teachers in the schools of the twentieth century. Thirdly, although the need for vocational education in the secondary schools was officially emphasized during the first two decades of this century, no corresponding provision was made in the curricula of the training colleges to prepare teachers for vocational education and vocational guidance. Moreover, the knowledge and improvement of the whole educative process of the learner and the development of his person as a whole have neither been fully appreciated nor included in the curricula of the training institutions for both the primary and the secondary teachers.

(c) Short period of training:- Referring to the training schools and colleges for the preparation of primary teachers, the Central Advisory Board of Education said in their report (1944) that these "schools generally give one or two years' training of a rather elementary nature."[1] But even where limited facilities for a maximum period of two or three years training (e.g. in the province of Sindh) do exist, only a small percentage of primary teachers is actually given the opportunity to go through this maximum period of training. Moreover, the general qualifycations of the primary teacher being low, this training mainly strengthens their academic education.

In the case of secondary English teachers the "duration of the period of training is one year in some cases and two years in others."[2]The period of two years' training generally for the **undergraduate** secondary teachers, mainly aims at strengthening their knowledge of school subjects. In the case of graduate teachers (all from the liberal arts colleges) the duration of training is invariably of one academic year. Actually it is of "the short space of nine months" of class work, during which, as the Hartog Committee had pointed out, enough cannot be done "to uproot the old methods of teachin-

[1]Central Board of Advisory of Education : Report on Post – War Education Development, **op. cit.,** p. 48.

[2]**Loc. cit.**

ng to which many of the students are accustomed."[1] A period of nine months of class work is obviously inadequate for a mastery of the school subjects, a thorough understanding of the various methods of teaching, minimum amount of practice teaching, and the knowledge of educational psychology as well as class organization and management, which are commonly included in the curricula of the existing secondary teachers training colleges. This short period of preparation only results in a kind of superficial training of even the graduate secondary teachers.

(d)Poor equipment of the Training Institutions:- Except for a few of the leading secondary teachers' training colleges, the other training institutions for both the primary and secondary teachers are poorly equipped from the point of buildings, staff and instructional materials. The most serious shortcoming in a large majority of institutions has been the lack of good libraries and laboratory schools on the campus. Moreover, due to the peculiar location of many institutions, facilities for practice teaching have remained inadequate. Under these circumstances the training imparted in these institutions has been poor in quality.

(e) Administrative Inadequacies:- No consistent policies or programs have been followed in the organization and administration of teacher education. In this whole field of administrative relations there are, besides others, two most serious inadequacies which have hindered the improvement of both the training programs as well as the school curricula. Firstly, there has been no close coordination on reciprocal basis between the Education Department and the training institutions of the provinces. In the absence of such a coordination the training institutions have worked in isolation from the needs of the existing school system.

The second reason for the numerous administrative shortcomings is the lack of professionally trained administrators and supervisors which is the other serious defect in the administrative machinery. As already pointed out in Chapter III, one of the main causes of the poor quality of education in the schools has been the ineffective departmental supervision

[1]Vide supra, p. 179.

and inspection. In 1929, the Hartog Committee had referred to the "inadequacy of inspecting staff" and emphasized the need for an efficient body of supervisors who should work with the teachers, the parents, and the community".[1] These functions of the supervisors required that they should be professionally trained for their specialized work in the school system. But up to the present, the idea of professional training for the administrators and supervisors has not been fully realized by the Departmental authorities and, therefore, no provisions have been made in the curricula of the training institutions for the professional training of various types of administrators for the school system.

(f) Low Salaries and Poor Service Conditions for teachers:- Due to the low salary and poor service conditions intelligent and able young men and women are not attracted to the teaching profession. Generally such persons who are unable to get employment elsewhere finally seek refuge in the teaching profession in order to earn a livelihood.

In spite of many early recommendations to raise the salary scales of the teachers, the Hartog Committee found in 1929 that the average monthly salary for the untrained primary teachers varied from Rs.3 to Rs.25 ($1 to $8) and that in genral, the salaries of primary teachers varied from Rs.8-6-0 ($2.50) in Bengal to Rs.47-0-0 ($14) in Bombay.[2] Commenting upon the poor service conditions of secondary teachers, the Committee said:-

> **In no province is the pay of the teacher sufficient to give him the status which his work demands and in some provinces, e.g., Bengal and Behar the pay of the teacher is woefully low. But the most serious difficulty facing the teacher in the great majority of privately managed schools, and in some managed by local bodies, is insecurity of tenure. In spite of what has been done in recent years, the conditions of service of the teacher must be greatly altered before the quality of secondary education can become satisfactory.[3]**

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[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Staturtory Commission: **op. cit.,** pp. 68 – 69.

[2]**Ibid.,** pp 6465.

[3]**Ibid.,** pp 117 – 18.

As compared to the salaries of primary teachers, those of the secondary teachers have been somewhat higher, but in view of the higher qualifications required of them, their salaries and service conditions are also most unsatisfactory. But it is mainly the primary teachers who have been the most poorly paid of all the public employees. In 1944, the Central Advisory Board of Education in their report said:

> **It is notorious fact that the teaching profession in this country is miserably paid–the average pay of primary teachers in Government Schools is Rs. 27 ($8) per month, and in private schools it is generally lower; in one province the average is less than Rs.10/- ($3)per month. It is clear that both the pay and the status of the teacher will have to be very considerably improved if the profession is to attract the right type of recruit. The present position is explicable only on the assumption that the authorities responsible do not regard education as service of any real public importance.[1]**

According to an official: "A survey of the salaries of primary school teachers in all province reveals that teachers are paid less than postman and police constable."[2]

Under such poor service conditions and with such incredibly low salary scales, it is impossible either to get any able recruits for the teaching profession or expect a high quality of teaching from the teachers in service even if they were all trained teachers.

(g)A Policy of Rigid Governmental Control:- Probably the most formidable of all the obstacles to the improvement of the quality of teacher training and the classroom teaching has been the official policy of rigid official control. This authoritarian control leaves little freedom either to the training institutions to experiment and improve their training programs or to the teachers in service to change, modify or improve the school curricula in the light of their day–to–day teaching experience.

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[1]Central Advisory Board of Education; Report on Post – War Educational Development, **op. cit.,** p. 8.

[2]Sundaram, S.M: "Can we Secure 2,200,000 Teachers," **Teaching,** A Quarterly Technical Journal for Teachers, Mar, 1945, Oxfort University Press, Bombay, p. 80.

This official control over the school system has been tightened through the following channels:

(i) In the first place, the system of educational administration is based on the traditional line-and-staff principle which was rigidly enforced in order to meet the needs of the colonial Government. Under this authoritarian setup, the orders emanate from the highest authority and must be carried out by the lower hierarchy of subordinates. At the lowest end stands the teacher who has to abide strictly by the orders of the higher authorities regarding curriculum, teaching and classroom management. Although he or she is the important person who is directly concerned with the education of the children, there exists no satisfactory arrangement to channelize his or her suggestions and proposals to the highest authorities for the improvement of instructions. Instead of being an active participant in the school work, the teacher remains along with all the other subordinates a passive agent of the higher administrative authorities. In other words, there does not exist any mutually cooperative relationship between the higher administrative authorities and the teacher for the improvement of school work. It is generally taken for granted that the higher educational authorities know exactly what to do and, therefore, the teacher must do what he is ordered to do.

(ii) Secondly, the hold of governmental control over the management, programs and policies even of the private schools, both primary and secondary, has been consolidated through the legacy of official controls which accompanied the financial grants to private schools. The most harmful system of financial aid was that of **payment-by-results** which was first adopted towards the institution of higher education and then extended to the secondary and primary school systems.

In this form of governmental aid based on the principle of **payment-by-results**, the amount of grants to be given to a particular school depended upon the results as revealed by the final examinations conducted by the inspectors and supervisors of the Education Department. The Indian Education Commission (1882) pointed out the follow-ing disadvantages and advantages of this system.[1]

[1]Nurullah: History of Education, **op. cit.,** p. 308.

Disadvantages

(i) The test of exam-result is uncertain owing to the variations of standards applied by inspectors, or scholars, or accidental failure to show their real form under examination.

(ii) The system tends to give most aid to managers who require it least and least to those who need it most (teachers and pupils).

(iii) It tends to create antagonism between managers and inspecting officers.

(iv) It crushes out variety in courses of standards of instruction.

(v) It makes examinations the main object of the thou-ghts, alike of the pupils and teachers.

Advantages

(i) It enables the inspectors to apply praise or blame with an amount of firmness and decision impossible under any system that pays less attention to the examination of individual pupils.

(ii) It ensures that state aid is not wasted being given where there were no educational results.

(iii) It acts as a powerful stimulus to managers and teachers.

(iv) It enables the department to get rid of many troublesome questions about the character and trustworthiness of the management.

(v) It enables the department readily to compare the results obtained in different schools and districts.

Commenting on these so-called "advantages" Nurullah has rightly pointed out that:

> **A closer examination will show that most of the so-called advantages of the system are illusory. The uncertainty of the test by the inspecting officers nullifies the first, second and fifth advantages... all based upon the assumption that the inspector's tests are certain and infallible. The fourth argument is unsound because it is the duty of the Department to face the "troublesome questions" and not to evade them. The third advantage is real.... (but) it is also easy to see that this powerful stimulus is one which urges them (the teachers and managers) to adopt bad methods of teaching.**[1]

This system of grant-in-aid has not yet been abandoned.[2] It has been obviously detrimental to improvement of the quality of teaching. Under the conditions of such financial aid the efforts of the teachers as well as his methods of teaching must necessarily be subordinated to the controlling factor of examinations. A reliance on examinations as the sole instrument of assessing the results also excludes the educational responsibility of supervisors who, otherwise, should be primarily concerned with the improvement of the quality of instruction.

(iii) Thirdly, the curricula of the secondary teachers training colleges are prescribed by the Universities while the curricula of the training institutions for the primary teachers and also the primary and secondary schools are prescribed by the Departments of Education in each province. The faculties of the training institutions have no direct power to change, modify or improve the curriculum to suit the needs of the individual student teachers or to the existing needs of the school system. It is usually after an interval of some years that the Universities or Education Departments appoint committees to recommend changes in the curricula. Often the changes recommended lose their usefulness by the time they are implemented. This adversely affects the quality of training given to the student teachers. On the other hand, the curricula of the primary and secondary schools being rigidly prescribed, the "trained" teachers can hardly put their training into use in order to change, modify or improve the school curriculum. They can only change their methods of teaching. But even the best methods of teaching are seldom put to any use due to the pressure of final examinations which are controlled and conducted by the external authorities.

(iv) The Universities control and conduct the final examinations at the end of one year's training in the secondary teachers training colleges for the graduate teachers and confer B.T. degree on the successful candidates. The Government Policy Resolution of 1904 had proposed that this one year's training course for the graduate teachers "should be a University course, culminating in a University degree or diploma."[1] As a result of this control the training curricula became rigidly subordinated to the requirements of the external examinations. By 1918 the authorities of the Allahabad Training College (U.P), one of the premier institutions in the country, explained the results of this university control as follows:-

> **The Allahabad Training College is affiliated with the Allahabad University for the degree of licentiate in teaching. There are undoubtedly drawbacks in this relationship; the courses are determined and the exam-inations conducted by a body which knows little about the internal working of the college and examinable knowledge is likely to count far more than the capacity to manage and teach a class... the only serious objection to the University connection is that the written part of the examination is conducted by examiners who have little or no knowledge of the methods of teaching adopted by the staff; in some years this has led to results inconsistent with the college records.**[2]

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[1]Nurullah: History of Education **op. cit.,** p. 309

[2]For instance, the Muslim schools in the province of Sindh received financial aid on the principle of **payment – by – results** until last year when their control was completely taken over by the Provincial Government.

[1]Indian Educational Policy, Resolution of the Government of India of 11th March, 1904.

[2]Duncan and Mackenzie: **The Training of Teachers,** Occasional Reports No.8, **op. cit.,** p. 68.

The conditions were similar in other training colleges affiliated to other universities. The authorities of the Bombay Training College had by the same time complained of the rigid curriculum dominated by the external University examination.[1]

There has been no substantial change up to the present. The Universities control the curricula of the secondary graduate teachers training colleges and conduct the final annual examinations. The staff and students of these institutions devote their energies and efforts to the precarious requirements of these external examinations. The result is that the quality of training becomes seriously affected under the pressure of these externally controlled examinations. For, a training program adjusted, under the force of circum-stances, to the needs of final examinations can hardly inspire the student teacher to consider his training primarily as an instrument for the improvement of school system. In fact, under the present conditions a trained teacher has little freedom to use his training for the improvement of education. The school curricula are rigidly prescribed and examination ridden. The secondary schools necessarily prepare their pupils for the Matriculation Examination which is externally controlled and conducted by the University. The trained teachers cannot afford to ignore the realities of this situation. Their training inevitably succumbs to the pressure of requirements of the Matriculation Examination and "it is only natural that they soon lose heart and take the line of least resistance."[2]

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[1]Fraser, J. Nelson: **A Report on the Bombay Training College for Secondary Teachers,** Occasional Reports No., 5, Bureau of Education, India, p. 140

[2]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, **op. cit.,** p. 116. According to the argument of this Committee, a few trained teachers being dominated by many untrained teachers in the same school do so. This may be largely true yet, in such a situation there may still be many exceptions. But it is true without any exception that even the whole trained staff spends its energies in preparing pupils for the Matriculation Examination rather than in improving the quality of their real education.

The results of these manifold centralized controls, the administrative and financial on one hand and the University, and Departmental control of the curricula and the final examinations of the training institutions as well as of the primary and secondary schools on the other, have been detrimental to the improvement of teacher education. The cumulative effect of these controls is that the curricula of the training institutions are rigid and are neither suited to the needs of the individual teachers nor to the needs of the school system; the externally controlled examinations dominate the curricula and remain the primary objective of the teacher training programs; the trained teachers get little opportunity in the schools to use their training for the improvement of school curricula which are rigidly prescribed; and last but not least, even their methods of teaching succumb under the pressure of the externally controlled school final examinations, particularly the Matriculation Examination. Under these circumstances, an integration between theory and practice also becomes impossible. In the first instance, little coordination between theory and practice is achieved due to inadequate facilities for practice teaching, short period of training, and the domination of external examination which is primarily a written test in theory. Secondly, due to rigid curricula of the schools dominated by final examinations the trained teacher in service has little freedom or choice to put the high principles of his training into actual teaching practice.

5. Lack of Action on Some Useful Recommendations for the Improvement of Teacher Education

Due to these various obstacles which have been discussed above, only a little progress has been made in a few aspects of teacher education during the long period of nearly the past one hundred years. The teachers of public schools have been placed in graded service and are eligible either for a pension or admitted to a provident fund. The present salaries of teachers are a little higher than they were in 1882 or 1813. After the transfer of the Education Department to the Indian Ministers in 1921 and again after the introduction of Provincial Autonomy in 1937, the improvement of the service conditions of teachers as well as of the curricula of teacher training

institutions have received greater attention and some improvements have been effected.

However, the extent to which these improvements have been made is almost insignificant as compared to the actual needs of the training and service conditions of the teachers. Due to the inertia of the administrative machinery, even some useful and urgently needed improvements, which were officially recommended long ago, have not been carried out substantially up to the present. The Educational Despatch in 1854, the Indian Education Commission in 1882, the Government Policy Resolutions of 1904, and 1913, and the Hartog Committee in 1929 made the following useful recommendations which were never fully implemented.

Recruitment and Selection

Recruitment of teachers should start with the selection of pupils in the schools. (The Educational Despatch of 1854) "Teachers should be drawn from the class of the boys whom they will teach". (Government Resolution of 1913) "In the first place, it is generally admitted that, as far as possible, village teachers should be recruited from amongst persons who possess and are likely to retain a sympathetic understanding of rural conditions." (Hartog Committee, 1929).

Adjustment of the Training Programs to the Needs of the Local School System

In order to achieve success "the supply of the normal schools, whether Government or aided, be so localized as to provide for the local requirements of all primary schools whether Government or aided, within the division under each Inspector".

"We have laid great emphasis on the local requirements of schools, and the policy of localizing training schools."

Greater training facilities should be afforded to "indigenous school masters" of local community schools. (Indian Education Commission, 1882)

In order to solve the problem of a large number of single–teacher schools, a policy of consolidation (central schools with different branch–schools teaching lower primary grades) should be adopted and besides, plural class teaching

methods should be taught in the training schools.(Hartog Committee, 1929).

Adequate Arrangements for Well–equipped Practicing Schools and Supervised Practice Teaching for Integrating Theory with Practice.

The training in the theory of teaching should be closely associated with its practice, and for this purpose good practicing schools should be attached to each college, and should be under the control of the same authority. The practicing schools should be fully equipped with well trained teachers, and the students should see examples of the best teaching and should teach under capable supervision. (Government Policy Resolution 1904).

In the training institutions "adequate practicing schools are a necessary adjunct and the size of the practicing school will greatly determine the size of the normal school." (Government Policy Resolution 1913).

Equipment of the Training Colleges

"The equipment of a Training College for secondary teachers is at least as important as that of an Arts College."

"It is desirable that the training colleges should be furnished with a good library, and with a museum in which should be exhibited samples, models, illustrations, or records of the school work of the province."

There should be "an adequate staff of well–trained instructors of the Indian Educational Service...men of ability and experience in the work of higher training." (Government Policy Resolution, 1904).

No External Examinations

In the secondary teachers colleges, the main object of training should be to prepare capable teachers, "and no attempt should be made to prepare them for any higher external examinations." (Government Policy Resolution, 1904)

Curricula and Examinations to be Controlled Jointly by the College Authorities and Education Department

In the training colleges for secondary teachers "the scheme of instruction should be determined by the authorities

of the training college and by the Education Department; and the examination at the close of it should be controlled by the same authorities." (Government Policy Resolution, 1904)

Certification of Teachers

All teachers should be certified. (The Educational Despatch, 1854)

"Eventually under modern systems of education no teacher should be allowed to teach without a certificate that he has qualified to do so." (Government Policy Resolution, 1904)

Education of Teachers in Service

"Every possible care should be taken to maintain a connection between the training college and the school, so that the student on leaving the college and entering upon his career as a teacher may not neglect to practice the methods which he has been taught, and may not (as sometimes happens) be prevented from doing so and forced to fall into line with the more mechanical methods of his untrained colleagues.

The trained students whom the college has sent out should be occasionally brought together again, and the inspecting staff should cooperate with the training college authorities in seeing that the influence of the college makes itself felt in the schools." (Government Policy Resolution, 1904).

" As teachers left to themselves in villages are liable to deteriorate, there are great advantages in periodical repetition and improvement courses.... during school vacations." (Government Resolution Policy, 1913).

" Even under ideal conditions when the right type of teachers have been selected and well trained, the primary school teacher, particularly the village teacher, is much isolated and must often be in need of guidance and encouragement. Journals for teachers in the vernacular, refresher courses, conferences and meetings of teachers' associations can do much to brighten the lives of teachers and improve their work". (Hartog Committee, 1929).

Improvement of Salary Scales and Service Conditions

The teachers, when employed, should get "sufficient salary" and the teaching profession should "afford induce-

ments" equal to "other branches of public service." (The Educational Despatch, 1854)

"Trained teachers should be placed in a graded service, and they should either be eligible for a pension or admitted to provident fund."

"No teacher should be called on to instruct more than 50 pupils, preferably the number should be 30 or 40; and it is desirable to have a separate teacher for each class or standard".

"Indeed the Government..... hope that the day is not far distant when teachers in primary schools will receive considerable remuneration."(Government Policy Resolution of 1913).

"It seems clear that good progress cannot be anticipated from a system in which the remuneration of the teachers is so painfully inadequate." (Hartog Committee, 1929).

Closer Coordination Between School Supervision and Teacher Training.

"We attach great importance to the personal interest in which each Inspector should take in the normal school attached to his charge." (Indian Educational Commission, 1929)."

Had these recommendations been fully implemented the quality of training as well as the service conditions of teachers would have been considerably improved by now. But the findings of the latest report of the Central Advisory Board of Education (1944) and also the present conditions show that these improvements which were needed and recommended long ago still remain to be carried out. It will be a poor defense to repeat the traditional argument that because of the innumerable difficulties these recommenddations were or could not, be implemented. For, if these recommendations were practically feasible they would not have been proposed by the various official and authoritative committees and commissions. The failure to implement them, in fact, reflects the inadequacies of the administrative machinery which instead of solving the various difficulties has continuously cited them as obstacles to further improvements.

6. The Latest Recommendations of the Central Advisory Board of Education on the Training of Prospective Teachers and Their Service Conditions

Generally, whenever useful changes have been made in the field of teacher education, they have been made sporadically and only under the compelling force of circumstances. No well organized program of teacher education has ever been devised and implemented. During the whole colonial period, the Educational Despatch of 1854 may be considered the first elaborate directive which had a definite purpose and plan to spread the new Western system of education. Since then, the various official committees and commissions have produced voluminous reports suggesting either the improvement of existing defects or making further improvements. It was only in 1944 that for the first time and after full ninety years since the Educational Despatch of 1854, the Government through its Central Advisory Board of Education offered a plan for the reconstruction of the whole educational system.

The report of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Post–War Educational Development is, there-fore, the first thoughtful and deliberate plan aimed at reorganizing every branch of education on modern lines. The various proposals of the Board regarding the improvement of the training and service conditions of teachers are the latest and, therefore, may be examined at this point.

Proposals of the Central Advisory Board of Education regarding the improvement of Training and Service Conditions of Prospective Teachers[1]

(a) **Principles of Training**: "The Board have adopted the principle that all teachers must be trained."

(b) **Minimum Qualifications**:- The Board accepted the recommendations of their Committee (on "The Recruitment, Training and Conditions of Teachers in Primary, Middle and High Schools" appointed in 1942) prescribing as the minimum qualifications for a teacher in a Basic (Primary and Middle–Elementary stage) School, a matriculation certificate (analogous to Regents' Certificate in New York State) or its equivale-

[1]Central Advisory Board of Education: Report on Post – War Educational Development, **op. cit.,** vide pp. 2,3,8 – 11, 48 – 51 (italics supplied).

nt followed by a two or three years' course of professional training."

(c) **Basis of Recruitment and Selection:** After a system prevalent in some parts of England, pupils desiring to become teachers should be given exploratory experience in observation had teaching during last two years of their high school and, on the basis of their success in this initial trial be selected for admission to training schools or colleges.

(d) **Period of Training:** The Board have accepted the recommendations of their Committee that the normal periods of training should be as follows:-
For Pre–primary teachers:two years
For Junior Basic (Primary: Grades I–V):two years
For Senior Basic (Middle:Grade VI–VIII):three years

(e) **Curriculum:** "The Pre–primary or Nursery School teachers will require special attention which will take account of personal characteristics and aptitudes while teachers for Senior Basic (Middle) Schools will need special training in crafts."

Two separate types of training schools will be required for elementary teachers: (1) for Pre-Primary school teachers and (2) for Basic (Primary and Middle) teachers. "The course during the first year in the Training Schools should be devoted to the study of general and professional subjects supplemented by visits to schools, discussions and to other means of stimulating the interest of students. A considerable part of this period should be devoted to teaching practice which should never be relegated entirely to the second year. Wide facilities be provided for practice teaching which should be carried on in ordinary schools in preference to model schools where atmosphere is usually artificial. The second year course should be of a more intensive nature. Students to be encouraged to read more widely and to pursue their special aptitudes. More emphasis to be laid on tutorials. At the end of the second year's course students who have shown a special interest in, or aptitude for, craft work should be selected for a **third year's** training, for service in Senior Basic (Middle) Schools or as craft teachers in High Schools.

Every effort should be made to enhance the value of the teacher's Certificate awarded to successful students at the end of the appropriate course."

(f) **Size of Training Schools:** "If the training unit is too large, it will raise serious problems in regard to teaching practice. If it is too small, it will be uneconomic to staff and equipment. A reasonable unit for a Training School would be an institution with about 300 trainees or an annual entry of 150 for a two years' course."

(g) **Salary Scales of the Prospective Teachers:** Parti-cular attention is invited to the standard adopted by the Board for the recruitment and training of teachers on the one hand and for their remuneration on the other. The lowest minimum salary scales recomm-ended by the Board are:

For Teachers (men and women) in Junior Basic (Grades I to V) Schools including Infant and Nursery (Kindergarten) ... Rs.30-1-35-3 (biennially)–50 p.m (approximately $9 start–33¢ annual increment for 5 years-$10.65-90¢ increment (biennially) to $15 p.m.)

For teachers (men and women) in Senior Basic (Middle) grades VI–VIII Schools .. Rs.40–2–80 p.m. (approximately $12–65¢ - $24 p.m.)

The scales prescribed above are for ordinary **assistant** teachers in the different types of schools. No teacher should receive less than Rs. 20 (approx-imately $6.0) per mensem.

In a scheme of universal education success will not be achieved unless the teaching is effective, and efficient teachers will have to be adequately paid. "Doubts have already been expressed as to whether the proposed teachers' salaries which largely determine the total cost (of the scheme), will in fact be adequate to attract recruits of the calibre and in the quantities required."

(h) **Limiting the size of the school classes:** It is not practicable to organize schools, especially in the rural area into convenient units of say 40. If 40 were fixed as the minimum number of pupils per teacher, a school of 45 will need two, and one of 85, three teachers and so

on.... As in each class more sub-divisions may be necessary, one teacher to every 30 in Junior Basic (Grade I to V) schools is not an overgenerous standard to take in regard to staffing."

(j) **Refresher Course for Teachers:** Apart from the actual training for teachers, refresher courses in accordance with the recommendations of the Board should be provided at frequent intervals in order to keep trained teacher up–to–date. Such courses should cover all subjects of the curriculum as well as new ideas and methods of general interest. They are of the greatest importance in a country where a large number of teachers necessarily serve in isolated villages."

(k) **Raising the Status of Teachers**: According to the Committee, the ordinary salary scales proposed above are only for the **assistant teachers** and these will "hardly achieve the object of making the teaching service attractive to really good people or placing it on a level of comparative equality with other professions. But the committee believe that the inducements to the keen and ambitious to take up teaching can be increased if a reasonable number of posts are available which carry salaries above the ordinary scales. Outstanding among these posts are those of Headmaster and Headmistress and much may be done to raise the status of teaching in the eyes of the public generally and of parents in particular by according special recognition to these posts..... The committee are convinced that not only the administrative responsibilities of Heads in all the smallest schools be rationalized, but what is much more important the influence which particularly in rural areas they should exercise on pupils, parents and the community at large must receive much greater recognition than they have received hitherto. **The head of even the smallest school ought to be a person of consequence in the district and this should be reflected in his salary**." (The Committee therefore recommended specially higher salary scales for the Heads in Junior and Senior Basic Schools.)

(l) **Pension and Retirement:** "All teaching service should ultimately become pensionable and that where no pension funds exist, or can be expected to exist in the near future, contributory provident funds should be at once established on the basis of 50 per cent from the teacher and 50 per cent from the employer. For the salary scales proposed, although they represent very substantial improvement on the existing position it is still open to doubt whether in view of the better educational background now demanded they will succeed in attracting an adequate supply of teacher of the right type."

The most promising aspect of these recommendations is that they have covered for the first time, all the inter-related issues involved in the whole problem of improving the training, the quality of teaching, and the service conditions of prospective teachers. The members of the Board have emphasized the general principle that **all** teachers should be trained. They have fixed the completion of high school education as the lowest minimum qualification for entry to the teaching profession for all teachers; they make no distinction between men and women teachers; and that they have laid great stress on improving the service conditions of the teachers, particularly their salary scales. They have recommended lowest minimum salary scales for the various graded services and also set an overall minimum by laying down that no teacher shall be paid less than Rs.20 (approximately $6) per mensem.

However, the limitations of certain recommendations of this latest and progressive official report are also obvious and serious. In the first instance, this Report being primarily concerned with the administrative and financial problems rather than educational problems,[1] the numerous quantitative recommendations setting forth various minimum and maximum requirements, are based upon financial considerations

[1]"Since the primary object of this report is to place a practicable plan of post–war development before the Reconstruction Committee of the Viceroy's Executive Council, which will hardly have time or the desire to concern itself with matters of educational method or technique." (Report on Post–War Educational Development, p. 1).

rather than on sound educational need. Secondly, the prudential approach of this "practicable" plan in giving a predominant attention to the administrative and financial problems has comparatively given less thought and attention to the improvement of the educative process of the prospective teachers. The few suggestions that have been offered reveal the thinking of administrators rather than the sound insight of educators. For instance, there are no sound educational reasons for such proposals as (i) **two separate types of training schools** for primary (Kindergarten) teachers and elementary teachers of primary and middle schools, and (ii) **different periods of training** for pre-primary teachers (2 years), Junior Basic (lower elementary) teachers (2 years) and Senior Basic (upper elementary) teachers (3 years).

Suggestions regarding the curriculum are the most confused of all. The statement that: "The Pre-Primary or Nursery School teachers will require special attention, which will take account of personal characteristics and aptitudes, while teachers for Senior Basic (Middle) Schools will need special training in crafts," shows that little thought seems to have been given clarifying the educational issues. The general statement regarding the contents of the curriculum covering three years of the training period is equally vague and obscure. The proposals suggesting a hierarchy of different schools and varying periods of training for Pre-Primary, Junior Basic and Senior Basic teachers as well as differences in their salaries are again in line with the traditional thinking that the teachers of lower grades are inferior to, or at least not as important as, the teachers of the upper grades. Thus it is obvious that while this latest and forward-looking report of the Central Advisory Board made comprehensive recommendations regarding various interrelated problems of training and service conditions of teachers, it failed to give sufficient attention to the kind and type of education needed for the prospective teachers on whom, as they themselves said, depended the success of any scheme of education.

From the administrative viewpoint, this report of the Central Advisory Board has made a definite contribution by its sound analysis of the problems of progressive supply of teachers to extend the benefit of free and compulsory primary education to all children and the high school education to the

selected ones. The report has with reason-able precision estimated the cost of implementing the plan. It has, therefore, shown a definite line of action to the provincial administrators at least in so far as the quantitative estimates of the number of the schools, teaching personnel, and finances are concerned.

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Chapter V

PROPOSALS FOR A SYSTEM OF NATIONAL EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN

Importance of National Education

In 1868 Lord Lawrence observed that "among all the sources of difficulty in our administration and of possible danger to ability of Government (in British India), there are few so serious as the ignorance of the people." These ominous words of the British administrator need a more forceful repetition by our own authorities in this post-independence period. The British could avoid a bloody revolution by withdrawing, but the people themselves cannot and could not. National independence was accompanied by chaos and confusion. In the absence of educational advance-ment, our hard-won freedom might succumb to internal upheavals among the ignorant population. The founding father of Pakistan, in his message to the Pakistan Educational Conference (November 1947) said:" There is **no doubt that the future of our state will and must greatly depend upon the type of education we give our children**, and the way in which we bring them up as future citizens of Pakistan."[1]

Education and enlightened public opinion are also the only safeguards against any external aggression. In national education lies the only sure and permanent guarantee of national defense and national strength. In the present conditions of conflict and confusion, no country can be ignorant and be free and strong at the same time. During the

[1]Proceedings of the Pakistan Educational Conference, Quaid-i-Azam (Muhammad Ali Jinnah) Message, p. 5 (italics supplied).

period between the two world wars the tremendous power of organized education was clearly demonstrated by the quick rise of Germany, Russia and Japan. Great Britain, which suffered tremendous losses in World War II, has pinned her faith on the power of national education. The new scheme for educational reconstruction in Britain is introduced with these words: "Upon the education of the people of this country the fate of this country depends."[1] It will be suicidal for Pakistan if the reconstruction of national education is stopped, slowed or postponed in favour of any other means of national defense.

Not only for national strength but for economic progress and national prosperity an organized system of national education is most essential. Only education makes the most significant contribution to all the essential factors of production, e.g., labour, natural resources, capital and organization and management. Education makes labour intelligent and efficient; through scientific knowledge it prevents waste and enables an economy to conserve and utilize natural resources; it contributes to the development of capital equipment, tools, machinery, plants and technical processes employed in transforming material into consumer goods, and it increases the organizational ability to manage and grasp the complexity of business and industrial concerns. According to one of the most competent authori-ties in America, "..... the effectiveness of individual capacity to produce, or to manage production, is determined by the degree of special cooperation, and..... this cooperation depends primarily upon education." He adds "that the maintenance a civilized society of high productive efficiency is impossible without widespread education."[2]

In fact education and economic well-being go together. "Economists recognize the effect of sound education on all factors of production. Education's influence is so pervasive and important that some classify it as a basic factor of production itself. Almost a century ago, about the beginning of the Indus-

[1]Board of Education: "Educational Reconstruction," London, 1943, p.1.

[2]Bernard, Chester I.: "Education and Social Welfare." An address at the Eightieth Annual Convention of the New Jersy State Teachers Association, Atlantic City, Nov. 10, 1934, pp. 13 and 15.

trial revolution, Senior assessed the economic value of education as follows: "No country is so poor as to be unable to bear the expenses of good elementary schools. Strictly speaking it is not an expense. The money so employed is much more than repaid by the superiority and diligence in skill, in economy, in health, in short in all the qualities which fit men to produce and preserve wealth of an educated over an uneducated community."[1] The spread of education in the nation is obviously essential for the economic well–being of Pakistan.

Above all, we are living in a transitional era of the most profound social and political changes. Our capacity for self–government is on trial. Under national independence we are confronted with making fateful choices. We have achieved independence but stand at the crossroads of our history. Our survival and strength depend upon our intelligence and ability to solve our problems. In order to be able to face the unknown future we must pin our faith on education. In order to be able to release its creative abilities the nation must recreate its traditional faith in the worth and power of learning and knowledge and live up to the potentialities of its culture and civilization. Only with a sound system of education can the future be ours.

Need for Changing the Present System of Education and Reconstruction of National System of Education Fully Realised

The importance of education need not be overemphasized. In theory, it has already been accepted by our educational authorities. The most important point that needs emphasis is that not every or any kind of education can solve our problems. By consensus the present system of education cannot. Efforts were made long ago to create some new kind of education suited to the genius of our people. Among the Muslim community, Sir Sayyid Ahmed Khan laid the foundations of a type of Anglo–Muslim education which culminated in the establishment of the Muslim University,

[1]Educational Policies Commission: "Education and Economic Well- Being in American Democracy," National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D.C., 1940, p. 26.

Aligrah in 1920. This new type of education was based on a compromise between the Muslim education and the English education. However, since this compromise sacrificed too much of the indigenous values, a section of this school of thought broke away from the Aligrah viewpoint and established a new Community Institution (Jamia Millia)[1] to evolve a new kind of national education. Rejecting the narrow and alien philosophy of the present system of English education, the Jamia Millia sought "to broaden the education of the youth on their own cultural heritage without rejecting what is true and useful in the cultures of others," and educate them for **character, initiative** and **responsibility**.

Subsequently the need for a national system of education suited to the genius of the people was emphasized by various educational conferences. The reaction against the present system of education reached its climax in the Wardha Educational Conference (22nd –23rd October 1937). The Zakir Hussain Committee[2] of this conference declared in their report:

> Indian opinion is practically unanimous in condemning the existing system of education in the country. In the past it has failed to meet the most urgent and pressing needs of national life, and to organize and direct its forces and tendencies into proper channels. Today, when quick and far- reaching changes are reshaping both national and international life and making new demands on the citizens, it continues to function listlessly and apart from the real currents of life, unable to adopt itself to the changed circumstances. It is neither responsive to the realistic elements of the present situation nor inspired by life–giving and creative ideals. It does not train individuals to become useful, productive members of society, able to pull their own weight and to participate effectively in its work. It has no conception of the new cooperative social order which education must help bring into existence to replace the present competitive and inhuman regime

[1]Established at Aligrah in 1920 and transferred to Delhi in 1925.

[2]Under the chairmandship of Dr. Zakir Hussain, the head of the Jamia Millia.

> based on exploitation and violent force. There is, therefore, a demand from all sides for the replacement of the present system of education by a more constructive and human system, which will be better integrated with the needs and ideals of national life, and better able to meet its pressing demands.[1]

Following this public indictment of the present system of education, the official reports of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Post–War Educational Development in India admitted that "…. it is inconceivable that within a reasonable period a really national system could be developed or evolved from that which now exists or by the methods hitherto followed. Apart from the extremely slow progress which had been made before the war, the present system does not provide the foundations on which an effective structure could be erected; in fact, much of the present rambling edifice will have to be scrapped in order that something better may be substituted."[2]

With the achievement of national independence, the need for changing the present system of education and reconstructing a national system of education has become most urgent. The government of Pakistan is fully aware of, and anxious to meet, this urgent need for educational change. The Quaid-i-Azam in his message to the Pakistan Educational Conference (November, 1947) said:

> You know that the importance of Education, and of the right type of education, cannot be overemphasized. Under foreign rule for over a century, sufficient attention has not been paid to the education of our people, and if we are to make real, speedy and substantial progress, we must earnestly tackle this question.[3]

[1]Report pf the Zakir Hussain Committee, Selection 1, p. 8, "Educational Reconstruction etc., etc.," (Wardha Scheme), Vora & Co., Publishers, Ltd., Bombay, 1938.

[2]Central Advisory Board of Education: Report on Post – war Educational Development, p.2

[3]Proceedings of the Pakistan Educational Conference, p.5

Mr. Fazlur Rehman in his inaugural address to the Conference observed: Our existing educational system, as originally conceived by Macaulay, was intended to serve a narrow, utilitarian purpose and its growth has been largely a matter of artificial improvisation. It has been rightly condemned for its lack of realism and its inability to subject itself to the needs of a rapidly changing society, its over–literary bias and its utterly uninspiring soulless character. It has no common faith or a common body of principles to animate it and has conspicuously failed to inculcate and maintain the stern moral and intellectual discipline which is the hall–mark of true education. Thus its products, with their minds crammed with an unanimated mass of unrelated ideas and facts passing for knowledge, have gone out into the world only to discover that they are unfit for the business of living. The **growing realization** of these grave deficiencies and their paralyzing effect on national life inevitably bred acute dissatisfaction in the minds of all thinking people and has, of late years, led to a considerable concentration of energies on a complete overhaul of our entire educational structure.[1]

Thus for the last quarter of a century there has been a strong movement to abandon the present system of education and substitute something better and more useful. But **from where** to find a substitute, **what** to substitute, and **how** to substitute are problems which have received, comparatively, less attention. There is an urgent need to find adequate answer to these questions in order to define the contents and character of the new national system of education.

Sources for Effecting Educational Change

The attempts made thus far to substitute a new type of education, with all their originality have been mainly based upon a sharp reaction to the present system of education. It will indeed be a shortsighted policy if, under our present conditioned thinking, we construct our national education on the basis of this reaction. For the contents and character of our national education we must turn to an everlasting source of national values, strengths, and progress. This overall and everlasting source of national education can be no other than our society (Umma) and its environment.

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[1] **Ibid.,** p.7.

An organized system of national education has three main aspects: its foundations, its objectives and its operational process. In a broad sense, the source of foundations of national education lies in the area of achievements of society in the past and present; the objectives of national education must necessarily be sought for mainly in the area of the needs of the society; and its operational processes must be designed so as to achieve these objectives. Since our society will not remain static but, with our educational planning, will improve and progress, the theory and practice of national education must be functions of time, place and circumstances. We cannot, therefore, define the scope and nature of national education once and for all. Reconstruction of national education must be a continuous process in the light of new experiences and new needs.

It is essential that the Central Government appoints a commission or committee on a national level to complete the task of defining the broad features of every aspect of national education. The Pakistan Educational Conference has already done good preliminary work. However, any committee or commission which undertakes this task must necessarily search the following areas for the contents and character of national education:

a). **The culture and civilization** of our society as a source of enduring religious, cultural and social values.

b). **The educational heritage** of our society for those values in educational theory and practice which will give continuity to our past and present educational tradition.

c). **The British–Indian system of education** (the present system) which provides a long experience of more than one hundred years with a form of Western system of education. The successes and failures of this experiment should help us avoid any new mistakes and make better use of what any foreign system of education can offer.

d). **The present Western or Eastern systems of education** which can offer the best of those modern educational theories and practices which can be adjusted to our own needs and will help solve similar problems of our society.

e). **The present needs of our society** which must mainly determine the kind, amount, quality and objectives of the national system of education in Pakistan. Among the needs of the society are included the needs of the individual, needs of the local community of our regional groups and the needs of the nation as a whole. In our society there is no conflicting distinction between the individual and the community (***millat***) as a whole. Both are complementary to each other. However, the individual being the primary unit of society, the national system of education must provide for the needs of the individual as a learner, as a person, as a member of the local community, and as a citizen of the State. Secondly, the national system of education must provide for the improvement of the local community. The new schools must be an integral part of the local community and educate the children to grow up as useful members of the community, fully equipped to solve the local community problems. Thirdly, the national education must be oriented to the overall ideals, needs and problems of the nation as a whole. The problems of the nation are both national and international in character. Therefore, education, for effective citizenship as well as for international understanding, must be an important feature of the new national system of education.

f). **The present operational patterns of education.** The whole administrative pattern of programs and policies, with which we have experimented for the past one hundred years, needs a careful scrutiny in order to devise a new operational pattern which will avoid the failures inherent in the present static, authoritarian and rigidly controlled system of administration.

Only after a careful study and survey of the above six main areas will it be possible to provide new values, new contents, and new programs and policies for a sound system of national education. Any narrow and one–sided view or one-sided reaction will fail to create a system of education which will be broad in scope, content and character and truly representative of the needs and ideas of the nation as a whole. The founding father of Pakistan emphasized this broad reconstruction of national education when he emphasized that "…. we must earnestly tackle this question and bring our educational policy and programs on the lines suited to the genius of our people, consonant with our history and culture and having regard to the modern conditions and vast developments that have taken place all over the world."[1]

Foundations for National Education

When we say that the present system of education is alien in character, we mean that it is based upon a different system of values and that it develops an outlook, attitude and appreciation which have little in common with our way of life. In other words, the foundational values of the present educational system are not rooted in our own civilization and culture. We, therefore, criticize it as having no national ideals, as being little related to our life and culture, as being "uninspiring and soulless in character," as having "no common faith or common body of principles," or as lacking in spiritual values. This is due to the fact that while the structure of the present system rests on our soil, its foundations lie in a foreign society and civilization.

The foremost task in the new educational reconstruction, therefore, is to make the new educational system our own by laying its foundations in our own culture and civilization. Speaking of American education, Counts declares that since "Education always expresses a conception of civilization … our education should express a great conception of our civilization in its historical and world setting."[2] This is exactly the task before the educators in Pakistan. Our educational system can be truly national only if it reflects our own cultural values and represents our own social ideas. This is, or ought to be, the function of national education in every country.

> This historical record shows that education is always a function of time, place and circumstances. In its basic philosophy, its social objective, and its program of instruction, it inevitably reflects in varying proportion the experiences, the conditions, and the hopes, fears and aspirations of a particular people or cultural group

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[1]Proceedings of the Pakistan Education Conference, Quaid-i-Azam's message, p. 5.

[2]Counts, George A.: Education and the Promise of America, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1945, Introduction, p. vii.

at a particular point in history. In actuality it is never organized and conducted with sole reference to absolute and universal terms. While the biological inheritance of the race presumably remains practically unchanged from age to age and thus gives a certain stability to the learning process, education as a whole is always relative, at best in fundamental parts, to some concrete and evolving social situation. It possesses no inner logic or empirical structure of its own that dictates either its method or its content. In both its theoretical and practical aspects it expresses the ideals of some given society at some given period in time, either consciously with clear design or half–consciously with hidden and confused purpose. There can be no all-embracing educational philosophy, policy or program suited to all cultures and all ages.[1]

National independence has given us the opportunity to lay the foundations of national education, with alert consciousness and great purpose, in the system of our own values and in the whole heritage of our own society. Since our values and our whole heritage can be appropriately described as Islamic, our task is to strengthen the Islamic foundations of education. Islam represents a system of values and a way of life which have operated in the religious, historical, social and cultural achievements of our society. The task, therefore, is to make the national education a dynamic experience of our civilization by planting its roots in the historical, religious, social and cultural setting of the Islamic society. We have to strengthen the Islamic, historical social and cultural foundations of education on the human side and its foundations of psychology as a science and as a profession.

The basic foundations of our national education may be suggested as follows:-

(a) **Human and ethical foundation:** Our concept of Islam is that of **din,** a system of values, and **madhhab,** a way of life. In its ethical and moral aspects Islam is a system of human

[1]Counts, George A.: The Social Foundations of Education, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1934, Introduction, p.1.

values; in its social implications it is a great social faith entailing the ideas of a world community **(umma)** and universal brotherhood **(akhuwwa);** in its political implications it can be accurately described as a human democracy and is based on absolute justice and equality of opportunity for all. Its operational values are essentially international in character. It is not an isolationist creed but an active and cooperative social order. In the Islamic society, therefore, there is no division between "religious,""moral,"and "secular" values. They are all integrated in common faith, in common purpose and common goals. **All secular acts are religious if they are inspired with faith and are useful to human advancement.**

These Islamic or human values should constitute the universal foundations of our national system of education. The Pakistan Educational Conference emphasized mainly this aspect of Islamic values. The Primary and Secondary Education Committee of the conference in its report laid down the following guiding principles for educational ideology:

(i) Education should be based on the Islamic conception of universal brotherhood of men, social democracy and social justice.

(ii) It should be compulsory for students to learn the fundamental principles of their religion.

(iii) There should be proper integration of spiritual, social and vocational elements in education.[1]

The conference as a whole resolved:

..... that the educational system in Pakistan should be inspired by Islamic ideology emphasizing among many of its characteristics those of universal brotherhood, tolerance and justice.[2]

The implications of these overall goals, and of what has already been stated in the summary and conclusions to Chapter II, are that:

i) The national education should be imbued with faith -- faith in the Creator and faith in the creative abilities of men. It should work with faith and inspire faith and confidence. It should preserve and strengthen the moral integrity of the human person.

[1]Proceedings of Pakistan Educational Conference, p. 21.

[2]**Ibid.,** p. 44.

ii) It should establish the dignity of the human person. Its end result should be complete self–development and the full self–realization of the individual, while its process should operate on the principle of greatest possible respect for the individual person.

iii) Universal brotherhood **(akhuwwa)** implies that the new education will inculcate common purpose and common ideals: that it will build up attitudes of mutual understanding and appreciation, and will prepare the youth for mutual assistance and cooperative living for the common good of all.

iv) Social democracy implies that education will strengthen the ideals of freedom and equality: that it will equip the learner with those skills, attitudes and knowledge which would help him resolve various kinds of conflicts and differences peacefully; that it will replace the selfish character of competition for strictly individual advantage with cooperative endeavors for the common good of the whole community; and that it will prepare the youth to discharge their civic responsibilities with courage, confidence and efficiency.

v) Social justice implies that in the national system of education there will be equality of educational opportunity for all and that the education of youth will prepare them to recognize and promote the ideal of equality of opportunity in every sphere of national life.

vi) Most important of all, our national education must emphasize the integration of spiritual and secular values, which is the most significant Islamic concept of life. Moral and material values are complementary in Islam which is at the same time a system of faith and a code of life. All aspects of living are Godly acts if they inspire faith in God and are of benefit to mankind. Eating and sleeping are acts of prayer if the energy they give is to be used in an honest and righteous way. Prayer to God and the improvement of living have been bracketed together in the Quran. This integrating ideal of Islamic society implies that in the national system of education there will be integration of

vocational, social and spiritual elements: that the religious, academic and vocational education will go together.

(b)**Historical foundation.** Pakistan symbolizes the historical tradition of the Muslim nation in India. This historical past gives meaning to the present and provides direction for the future. Knowledge of the past heritage integrates the system of values that a society cherishes. It gives a sense of continuity and progress and establishes the fact that the civilization is a growing heritage, not a static heirloom. In this world of conflicting ideologies, study of the past is essential to inspire confidence and faith in our own institutions. America, which primarily and predominantly is concerned with the future, regards the history of the nation as her precious heritage. The American school system, which offers hundreds and thousands of electives to enable the learner to choose subjects according to his needs and interests, still makes the study of American history and the American Constitution a compulsory subject for every pupil in high school. At the present time America seems far more eager to know and appreciate her historical past than ever. According to an influential recent pronouncement:

> **To study the American present is to discern at best the aims and purposes of a free society animating its imperfections. To study the past is immensely to enrich the meaning of the present and at the same time to clarify it by the simplification of the writings and the issues which have been winnowed from history.**[1]

For our nation it is still more important not only to study the past but to reconstruct its fabric since it has been lately broken by foreign domination and distorted and misrepresented subsequently. Our founding father emphasized that our national education must be "consonant with our history and culture." In this sphere the educational task is two–fold: to unfold the whole history of the nation in order to enrich and invigorate its present, and to reconstruct our educational tradition. The history of Islamic civilization in

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[1]Report of Harvard Committee, Central Education in a Free Society, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press, 1946, p. 45.

general and the history of Islamic education in particular should provide the broad foundational contents and values for the national system of education. In Chapters I and II an attempt has been made to explore some segments of this national heritage. This is a kind of preliminary approach and indicates the scope and direction of efforts that should be made. It is for the national system of education to provide opportunities for a complete re–evaluation and appreciation of the whole past.

(c) **Social foundation.** We are in the process of building up new schools **of** the society and for the society. It is a transitional stage for a new kind of education for the nation. It is analogous, in a way, to the early twentieth century stage of American education when Dewey earnestly pleaded:

> **It is to this, then, that I especially ask your attention: the effort to conceive what roughly may be termed the "New Education" in the light of larger changes in society. Can we connect this "New Education" with the general march of events? If we can, it will lose its isolated character..... it will appear as a part and parcel of the whole social evolution, and, in its more general features at least, as inevitable.**[1]

This is exactly the task in strengthening the social foundations of education -- to abolish its "isolated character and to make it an integral part of the society and the whole social evolution." " We are apt to look at the school," said Dewey, "from an individualistic standpoint, as something between teacher and pupil, or between parents .... Yet the range of outlook needs to be enlarged... All that society has accomplished for itself is put through the agency of the school, at the disposal of its future members."[2] The family, home, the community, and all kinds of community institutions compose and weave the fabric of social traditions. The school being an active agency of the society, it must be closely integrated with the whole process of social change in

[1]Dewey, John E.: The School and Scociety, Rev.ed., The University of Chicago Press, 1916, pp. 4 – 5.

[2]**Ibid.,** p. 3.

order to improve the quality of this process through a better preparation of the members of the society. The school will remain isolated from the currents of social life unless close cooperative relations are established between the school and the community. In a broader sense the task is to build up the social and sociological foundations of national education.

(d) **Cultural foundation.** It has been admitted on all sides that our present system of education is little related to the culture of our people. Its cultural contents are foreign in character and it has alienated our youth from their own cultural heritage.[1] The new national education must be rooted in the cultural heritage of the society. This heritage represents the creative genius of the Islamic society as manifested in the development of language, literature, poetry, arts, sciences, music, architecture, and modes and manners of social behavior. From this vast heritage the new education must draw its inspiration for its creative values. The present system is uninspiring and "soulless in character" because it lacks creative and aesthetic contents in its mechanical uniformity. Our youth has not been able to digest the exotic culture introduced through English literature. If education is to foster creative values and inspire creative genius in our youth, it must weave the threads of our own cultural heritage into its creative progress.

(e) **Psychological foundation**. The most important element in education as a profession is the sound psychological knowledge of the educative process on the part of those who are in any way concerned with the guidance of this process. The present system of teacher education does little beyond providing for a meager knowledge of educational psychology to only a few of the teachers. As seen in Chapter IV, it gives little opportunity even to those few teachers to put that knowledge into effective use in their classroom teaching. Moreover, the schools are primarily concerned with the teaching of the three R's, or the various subjects which are little related to the needs and interests of the learner. The personal development of the learner as a whole has remained outside the

[1]c.f Mayhew, Arthur: The Education of India, 2nd ed., Faber and Gwyer, London, 1928, Chapters IX – X.

scope of the present school curricula. Thus the psychological foundations of the present system are too weak and ineffective.

For the national system of education to be effective, its psychological foundations need to be strengthened on the basis of the latest discoveries in the field of educational psychology.

(i) In the first instance, there is the urgent need of equipping every teacher with the knowledge of growth and development of the learner, the nature of the learning process and principles underlying good teaching.

(ii) Secondly, the teachers need an adequate knowledge of guidance and mental hygiene movements, which have contributed a great deal to the personal adjustment and development of the individual learner.

(iii) Thirdly, there is a still greater need for utilizing the contributions of the measurement and evaluation movements in order to appraise the educative process and improve it constantly. This is essential to minimize the evil of external examinations which have been our only tools of educational measurement so far.

These are some of the most significant aspects of the psychological foundations of education. There are, besides, the understandings and techniques involved in curriculum designing and the art of human relations which are rooted in the psychology and philosophy of education as a human enterprise.

Objectives of National Education

The aims and objectives of a national system of education in a given society are broadly two–fold: (i) to help the individual appreciate and develop those values, attitudes, and ideals which are cherished by the society, and (ii) to equip him with such skills, understanding and knowledge which will be useful to him in solving his problems and meeting his needs in society. In accordance with the different philosophies of life in different societies, the primary emphasis may be upon the development of the individual, or improvement of society, or the service of the state. In the Islamic society there is no absolute sovereignty of the state or the subordination of the individual to the state since all sovereignty belongs to God.

Nor do we entertain the concept of the individual for the individual's sake, apart from society. We believe in the worth of the individual person (**insan** or **fard**) as a useful member of the whole community (**umma_** or **millat**). According to our social philosophy, individual and community (or society) are complementary to each other. Therefore, the aims and objectives of our national education must be directly related to the development of the **individual as a member of society.**

The national education must inevitably be concerned with the basic values and the basic needs of the society, the values as held by its individual members and their competency to solve their needs and problems. While the foundations of the society give a great stability and permanence to a certain segment of values, other values will change with the progress of social evolution. Even the everlasting values of the society will need a new kind of unfolding in new times. Moreover, the needs of the society will inevitably vary and change in time, place and circumstances. Therefore, the objectives of national education must necessarily change with the changing times. They cannot be stated and defined once and for all. They must necessarily be functional and dynamic in character.

While the objectives of our national education will necessarily be related to the needs and ideals of the Islamic democracy of Pakistan, it may be helpful to be acquainted with the objectives of national education in some of the leading Western democracies. In Britain the main emphasis has been upon the development of character, i.e., on the side of values and attitudes that an individual holds. This British national viewpoint was reasserted with greater faith under the stresses and strains of World War-II:

> It has always been our proudest tradition that the chief aim of the education we impart is the training of character. Now, if ever, is **the** time to vindicate that tradition, for the structure of peace can be created only on the foundation of character. If we allow the children in our care to grow up myopic in vision, intellectually dishonest, and morally matriculate, we betray our trust....[1]

[1] **The London Times,** quoted in **School Life,** official journal of the U.S Office of Education, Vol. XXVII, October, 1941, p.8.

The term "character" is broad and all–inclusive, and yet it is abstract in nature. Its true significance is rooted in the British national tradition and is unfolded in the British way of life. Only the members of the British society can realize the true meaning and significance of it in relation to their own values, attitudes and tradition.

In American democracy also the aims and objectives of national education center on the development of the individual. However, in contrast to the British educational viewpoint the objectives of education in the American democracy have been defined in terms of the needs of the individual, rather than in terms of abstract values and concepts. They are broadly stated in terms of specific needs of life and living.

The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators in 1938 elaborated the objectives of American education in their publication, **The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.** Their essential viewpoint in setting forth these educational purposes may be summarized in their own words as follows:

> **Educational objectives depend on a scale of values and are essentially a statement of preferences, choices, values. They are rooted in the life of a people. The objectives of schools are a form of social policy, a form of social action based on some accepted scale of values. Since the values vary, constant reapplications of the scale of values to specific problems are necessary.**
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> **Scientific studies of the process of education itself affect the nature of educational objectives. Such studies may ascertain the degree to which given objectives are acceptable to the pubic, to the profession, or to any segment thereof. They may discover how universally or how perfectly the objectives have been attained by any person or group of persons. They may measure the positive or negative contributions made to the objectives by the schools or by any other social agencies. They may compare and evaluate the relative efficiency of various educational agencies, methods, or materials in approaching the objectives. They may throw light on the nature of men as learner and teacher and thus color the entire policy of education.**

Ethical judgments control the application of other standards

In America, schools are expected to promote a desirable present and future family life for the children in their care. This purpose is emphasized because people generally believe that the home and the family are wholesome institutions, capable of contributing to a good and significant life. This purpose of the school is frequently summarized in the phrase "worthy home membership." Again, what is **worthy** home membership? The objectives of the schools in this area acquire concrete meaning only when that word "worthy" is defined. This definition must be made, ultimately, upon an ethical basis. Therefore, ethical choice determines the real purpose of the school. "We are told that the schools ought to develop **good** citizens, possessing **ethical** character, who make a **worthy** use of their leisure time. But what is good, ethical or worthy? Every nation is interested in education for 'good' citizenship. But the ethical decision as to what is good in this field produces widely variant and indeed, opposing practices at different times and in different parts of the world."[1]

With this basic viewpoint regarding the nature of educational objectives the Commission analyzed the background of education in American democracy and identified four groups of educational objectives:

> **To recapitulate, four aspects of educational purposes have been identified. These aspects center around the person himself, his relationship to others in home and community, the creation and use of material wealth, and socio-civic activities. The first area calls for a description of the educated person; the second, for a description of the educated member of the family and community group; the third of the educated producer or consumer; the fourth of the educated citizen.**

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[1]Educational Policies Commission: The Purposes of Education in American Democracy, National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D.C 1938, pp 1 – 6.

Although these objectives are determined for education in American democracy, they are broad enough to be the objectives of education in any other democracy. There is nothing narrow or national in them which might conflict with the values and ideals held by any other nation. The thought and efforts put forth by the Commission in the determination of these objectives can be most helpful in clarifying the thinking of any other educators who might be engaged in a similar task of defining the objectives of education **in a democracy.**

There is an urgent task before the educators in Pakistan to determine and define the objectives of national education. Almost all the objectives of **Self–Realization, Human Relationship,** and that of Social Justice under **Civic Responsibility** as mentioned above are implicit in our social values. The only difference may be that these objectives will rank differently in our own scale of values. Similarly, their operational pattern will be different in our culture. The rest of the objectives of **Civic Responsibility** and those of **Economic Efficiency,** if not quite so significant under foreign rule, become most desirable for our people after the achievement of national independence. All these objectives, therefore, ought to be the objectives of our national education. We have criticized and rejected the present system of education mainly on the basis that it does not have most of these objectives in its working philosophy.

In the preliminary spadework done by the Pakistan Educational Conference some basic areas of educational objectives have already been identified.

Firstly, in accordance with the ideals of the society, there has been great emphasis on **spiritual and moral values.** In his inaugural address, the Minister of Education, (Mr. Fazlur Rehman) emphasizing the vocational, social and spiritual elements of education, said:

> **Of these three elements of education, I attach the highest importance to the spiritual element, for its neglect, which has characterized modern education, has had disastrous consequences ... so that unless the moral or spiritual growth of man keeps pace with the growth of science he is doomed to utter extinction.... To arrest this process, to purge men's minds of barbarism and turn them to humanitarian purposes is the great task which our education must attempt if we are to help mankind to survive.**[1]

Secondly, the Quaid-e-Azam in his message emphasized that: "there is immediate and urgent need for giving scientific and technical education to our **people in order to build up our future economic life** and to see that our people take to science, commerce, trade and, particularly, well–planned industries. We should not forget that we have to compete with a world which is moving very fast in this direction. The Minister of Education stressed the importance of educating youth for the **"business of living"**–a feature which is significantly absent from the present system of education. For the economic well–being of the nation he pointed out the following objectives of immediate concern: widespread vocational and technical education, improvement of agricultural economy, efficient use of the wealth of raw materials, industrial development of higher scientific and technical research.(pp.8–10)

Thirdly, along with building up the economic life, the founding father of Pakistan emphasized the important educational objective of **character building and personal development.** "At the same time we have to build up the character of our future generation. We should try, by sound education, to instill into them the highest sense of honor, integrity, responsibility and selfless service to the nation. We have to see to it that they are fully qualified and equipped to play their part in the various branches of national life in a manner which will do honor to Pakistan(p.5)." In accordance with this ideal the Minister of Education stressed the importance of equipping citizens with "the requisite training of body, mind, and character to live the good life(p.6)." Education for health and "physical training(p.9)" were held to be of utmost importance in the scheme of personal development.

The fourth area of immediate educational objectives that figure prominently in the deliberations of the Pakistan

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[1]Proceedings of Pakistan Educational Conference, p. 7. All the figures within parentheses hereafter, will refere to the pages of the same source (italics supplied).

Educational Conference is that of **social competency and cultural advancement.** This is the result of the fundamental Islamic concepts of social democracy and social justice and of a simultaneous cultural consciousness in the nation. Ideals of social democracy and social justice have been stressed throughout the deliberations of the Conference. On the side of social competency the Minister of Education pointed the primary and basic objective of preparing "good members of society"(p.7). Different objectives that have been stressed, such as "common faith and common purposes,"(p.7) "group activities," social service,(p.8) greater unity between rural and urban areas(p.9) and the ideal of social justice are all related to the objectives of social competency. For cultural unity and cultural advancement, enrichment of linguistic diversity, promotion of the national language, extension of national cultural contacts with other countries, development of the nation's cultural institution, invigoration of cultural traditions, development of architecture, arts and philosophy and unfolding and preserving of the nation's archaeological heritage have been stressed as the main objectives to be achieved by national education.

Fifthly, having won national freedom at a great cost after a long struggle against foreign domination, the people of Pakistan are most sensitive to the problem of **freedom and national independence .** Preparation for freedom, protection of freedom and promoting the cause of freedom everywhere have become the primary concern of national thought and effort. It is, therefore, natural that the objectives of education as related to national independence and freedom have been stressed in the deliberations of the Conference. The Minister of Education, therefore, stressed that "the price of liberty is eternal vigilance" which the national education is expected to promote. The other objectives stressed to be achieved in this area were to minimize provincial exclusiveness for the sake of national solidarity; to promote undivided loyalty through common citizenship; and to inculcate the spirit of self–reliance, initiative and courage among the youth of the nation.(p.8)

Closely related to the objectives of national freedom were stressed the **objectives of "training for citizenship,"** parti-cularly the right understanding needed to exercise the vote to enjoy the privileges of citizenship, to shoulder the

responsib- ilities of citizenship, to develop the "civic virtues of discipline, integrity and unselfish public service"(p.8), to be adequately educated and informed for effective citizen-ship(p.9) to be prepared for "international cooperation"(p.4,9), to participate in international organizations, particularly the U.N. and UNESCO(pp.9,12-13), and to acquire international understan-ding through the exchange of personnel and ideas.

The main points of thought about the objectives of national education as expressed in the Pakistan Educational Conference by all the participants have been brought together as above in order to get a composite picture of the main areas of these objectives. They could be broadly identified as follows:

i). Spiritual and Moral Integrity.
ii). Individual Competency
iii). Economic Efficiency.
iv). Social Competency (including cultural advancement)
v). Civic Responsibility (including the preservation of National Freedom and promotion of International Cooperation)

Within these broad areas of educational objectives fall the various objectives which have already been mentioned in this chapter, viz., those resulting from the deliberations of the Pakistan Educational Conference, those humane objectives which have been stated by the American Educational Policies Commission, and those which emerge from the discussion in Chapter I, II & III (vide summaries). **One way** of stating them all in terms of our present needs at the present time and under present circumstances **may be** as follows:

I. The Objectives of Spiritual and Moral Integrity

Faith in the Creator. The educated human being seeks faith in one and the same Creator of all as the unique source of unity in the whole creation.

Dignity of Human Person. The educated human being respects human person irrespective of race, sex, colour, creed or economic status.

Human Equality. The educated human being promotes human equality irrespective of differences in sex, race, colour, creed or economic status.

Appreciation of Differences. The educated human being appreciates differences in human cultures and civilizations.
Fellowship. The educated human being promotes security of his fellowmen.
Assistance. The educated human being helps those who need his help.
Peace. The educated human being promotes peace among mankind.
Moral Values. The educated human being puts moral and human values first.

II. The Objectives of Individual Competency

Self - improvement. The educated individual strives for self improvement.
Speech. The educated individual speaks the mother tongue clearly.
Reading. The educated individual reads the mother tongue efficiently.
Writing. The educated individual writes the mother tongue effectively.
Number. The educated individual solves problems of counting and calculating.
Sight and Hearing. The educated individual is skilled in listening and observing.
Health knowledge. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.
Health Habits. The educated individual protects his own health and that of his dependents.
Recreation. The educated individual has healthy recreational interests.
Intellectual Interests. The educated individual can use leisure for intellectual pursuits.
Aesthetic Interests. The educated individual enjoys creative work.
Character. The educated individual gives responsible direction to his life.

III. The objectives of Economic Efficiency

Dignity of Work. The educated person believes in the dignity of work and labour.

Productive Work. The educated person engages in productive work.
Satisfaction. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.
Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirements and opportunities for various jobs.
Occupational Choice. The educated producer has **selected** his occupation.
Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer strives for success in his chosen vocation.
Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer achieves success in his vocation.
Economy. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.
Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditure.
Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.
Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

IV. The Objectives of Social Competency.

Social Understanding. The educated member of society seeks to understand social structure, social processes and social problems.
Social Justice. The educated member of society strives for equality of opportunity for all.
Social Activity. The educated member of society acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.
Social Service. The educated member of society promotes social welfare.
Occupational Appreciation. The educated member of society appreciates the social value of his occupation.
Social Applications of Science. The educated member of society measures scientific advancement by its contribution to the general welfare.
Friendship. The educated member of society enjoys a rich, sincere and varied social life.
Cooperation. The educated member of society can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated member of society observes the amenities of social behavior.
Appreciation of the Home. The educated member of society appreciates the family as a social institution.
Conservation of the Home. The educated member of society conserves family ideals.
Homemaking. The educated member of society is skilled in homemaking.
Happiness of Home. The educated member of society maintains happy family relationship.
Neighborliness. The educated member of society is a good neighbor.
Community Affairs. The educated member of society participates usefully in community affairs.
Cultural Knowledge. The educated member of society knows and appreciates the cultural heritage of the society.
Cultural Activities. The educated member of society can participate in cultural institutions.
Cultural Promotion. The educated member of society engages in creative work.
Cultural Understandings. The educated member of society has basic understanding of neighboring cultures.

V. The Objectives of Civic Responsibility.

Heritage of Freedom. The educated citizen knows and appreciates the heritage of national freedom.
Protection of Freedom. The educated citizen is prepared to protect personal and national freedom.
Promotion of Freedom. The educated citizen promotes the cause of national freedom.
Critical Judgment. The educated citizen differentiates between propaganda and truth.
Tolerance of Differences. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.
Resolution of Differences. The educated citizen is able to resolve differences peacefully.
Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.
Vote. The educated citizen judiciously exercises the right to vote.

Public Health. The educated citizen promotes the cause of public health.
Public Service. The educated citizen discharges public responsibility loyally.
Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.
Economic Literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.
National Literacy. The educated citizen can read, write and speak **the national language.**
Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen gives undivided loyalty to democratic ideals of the society.
World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community.
World Peace. The educated citizen cooperates for world peace.
International Understanding. The educated citizen has basic international understanding.
World Freedom. The educated citizen supports the cause of freedom everywhere in the world.

The Educative Process

The objectives of education are the guide-posts which set the direction of educational enterprise. They are the end-results of education and not the education itself. The quality of national education will not improve automatically because a long list of educational objectives has been put on paper. The nub of the problem is how to achieve them. This how of education is the **actual educative process**.

Education as a **process** needs to be emphasized greatly in the reorganization of national education. So far, we have had a kind of educational "set up" ... rigid and static in character, having quantitative standards measured in terms of **amount** and **time**. It is clear from the nature of educational objectives as they have been stated, or may be stated in terms of our various needs, that they are predominantly different kinds of **values, attitudes, abilities, understandings, appreciations, and partly skills** and **knowledge** that a person develops through education. They are not the final cross- marks at the end of the space so that they could automatically be reached after so many years. Neither are they quantities of knowledge that can be measured in terms of a number of textbooks, subjects and examinations. These are all personal **qualities,**

and their full development and integration into the personality of an individual will depend upon **the way of working with the individual,** or the actual educative process. The quality of this process in turn will depend upon the quality of the school curriculum, the quality of teaching and learning process, the quality of the guidance process, the quality of administration, the quality of human relations in the school and its environment, the quality of school equipment, and the quality of the evaluating process. Some of the most essential and immediate changes needed to improve the quality of each of these important aspects of the educative process may be suggested as follows:-

a. Improving the school curriculum. It is obvious that all the educational objectives are concerned with the development of the individual and with the quality of his behaviour in various life - situations. The school curriculum must center, therefore, on the **individual in his social environment.** Our present curriculum is centered on textbooks and subjects. Our whole educational practice primarily aims at **teaching the texts and developing the subjects**. The individual is subordinated to text books and subjects. This practice is in accordance with the early educational tradition which is not in keeping with the modern developments in educational psychology. Educationally advanced countries have long since rejected it. According to Rugg, America has gone through "four formative movements of education during the last fifty years:

- Public education -- subject-centered.
- Liberal education -- two varieties, both subject - centered.
- Progressive education -- child - centered.
- Social education -- society - centered."[1]

In accordance with our social concept that **the individual is an integral part of the community,** our national education in its operational philosophy must necessarily be:

Social education -- individual + social centered. As such, the school must be an integral part of the society, and the school curriculum must be focussed on, and adjusted to, the

[1]Rugg, Harold: Foundations for American Education, World Book Company, New York, 1947, p.3.

personal needs and responsibilities of learners as individual members of society. The individual and the society, and not the textbooks and the subjects, should be the primary objects of study and development in our national schools. The harm done by the study of prescribed textbooks and prescribed subjects has already been admitted by our educators in their criticism of the present educational system.[1] The result of the textbook–subject curriculum is that the education of our youth is narrow and literary in character, and is little related to the problems of life and living.

In order to remedy this situation , the new curriculum must be functional in character. A functional course is a course that functions usefully. "The true criterion of functionalism is the effect on the student, and its ultimate test is the projection of classroom learning into daily practice."[2] In a functional curriculum the course of study comes from life and should relate to life as much as possible. It is not thought of as a thing apart from daily experience, as the present subjects are, but as a function of it. It is closely knit with life issues and life situations. As Cole puts it, functional organization of curriculum is "an aspect of the 'drive toward unity' between the life of the school and life of the world outside, between students and the adults they will become.[3]

The functional courses must necessarily be related to various areas of living and life, particularly to those with which overall educational objectives are concerned. The national schools may give courses in the area of human relationships to develop spiritual, ethical and moral values and attitudes; in the area of social relationships to develop social competency; in the area of occupational relationships to develop economic efficiency; or in the area of civic relationships to develop civic responsibility. These courses will have the functional aims of equipping the pupils with the necessary skills and knowledge for the study, understanding and improvement of the various areas of human relationships, life

[1]Vide supra, pp. 214 – 15.

[2]Johnson, Roy Ivan: Explorations in General Education: The Experience of Stephens College, Harper Brothers, New York, 1947, p.19.

[3]Cole. L.: The Background of College Teaching, Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., New York, 1940, p.65.

and environment. The courses may center on the home and family, the community, the village, the farmers' life, the cultivation of jute, problems of communication, the function of religion in life, the natural resources of Pakistan, the Indus River, languages of Pakistan, etc., -- in accordance with the needs of each school in each area and community in each province. All the subject matter that is now taught in terms of lifeless and compartmentalized subjects could be studied simultaneously in relation to, and as an integral part of, life and living.

The principles of teaching these courses will be functionally adjusted to the maturity level and the needs and interests of the children and the youth. In the primary school simple areas of life could be studied by children through their interests and activities in these areas. In secondary schools broader areas of life would constitute the **unit of work** in each class or may constitute the **central - study program** which might continue throughout the year. At the college level this may take the form of broader survey courses centered on national and international life, cultures and civilizations. Only through such functional courses can our national education be related to the life and living of the people, lose its one sided literary character and equip our youth with those values, attitudes, understandings, skills and knowledge which will help them solve the problems of their lives and make them useful members of society.

It is obvious that the purpose of functional courses could not be achieved through one or more prescribed books. For the information will come through all sources of life. Books will be a part of the whole instructional material and no doubt a very important part of it. But the use of books by the teacher and the pupils, like the use of any other audio-visual materials, will depend upon the need and the purpose of study at hand. Therefore, while the Education Department will necessarily aid the teachers and the schools with useful instructional material that they may need, the choice and use of books or any other part of the instructional material must necessarily be left to the discretion of the individual teacher and the school as a whole.

b. Improving the Quality of Learning. The one broad and important fact about learning revealed by modern psychology

is that the individual learns in terms of his own needs, interests, and abilities. Therefore, in order to make learning easy and effective, it is essential that our school curriculum be adjusted to the needs, interests, and abilities of the individual learner. "If education is to be effective it must start with the child as he is, with his abilities, desires, and interests, his needs and problems, his patterns of life and conduct, and help him organize his experience in meeting those needs so that he will gradually develop a fundamental life purpose or goal that will be socially desirable and personally satisfying."[1]

As pointed out in Chapter III, one glaring defect of the present education is that it does not provide for individual differences. One necessary step to be taken immediately is to help the nation's schools to design and adapt a curriculum that is varied enough to suit the needs, interests and abilities of the individual pupils. There is particularly an urgent need to differentiate the curriculum of secondary schools. As seen in Chapter III, it is rigid, uniform and almost entirely academic in character. It can be enriched with a variety of vocational courses which are most urgently needed for the economic well-being of the nation. It must be sufficiently enriched so that each pupil should have enough choice of courses to follow his line of need and interest, while at the same time there could be a minimum essential common group of courses which each pupil may be required to study as an essential part of his preparation for common citizenship.

A necessary corollary of a varied and functional curriculum is that it should be flexible. In order to provide for this flexibility, the Education Department should state in broad terms the objectives to be achieved by each class (grade) by the end of one academic year. These objectives, educational as they are, must necessarily be stated as far as possible in qualitative terms. Whenever they are partly quantitative the class teacher should have the freedom to modify them in terms of the needs and purposes of the class.

c. Promoting the Whole Personal Development of the Learner. The present system of education is intellectual in character. We are all aware that it produces intellectuals rather than nation–

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[1]National Society for the Study of Education, 37th Year Book, Part 1, p.4.

builders, social workers and responsible citizens. It is primarily concerned with the training of the mind of the student rather than with developing the personality of learner as a whole. Our new aim, as stated in the Pakistan Educational Conference, is to develop "the body, mind, and character" simultaneously. The newly-stated educational objectives are concerned with the development of the whole person physically, spiritually, intellectually, emotionally, socially as a worker and as a citizen. This means that our national schools must provide enough guidance for full personal development. It must be the primary function of our schools to help the individual pupils to make intelligent choices and better personal adjustments. While in all the educationally advanced countries this guidance service has become an integral part of the school curriculum, it is significantly absent from our present school system. The present authoritarian concept of **discipline** overwhelms all considerations for the better organized program of helping the pupils to make a satisfactory personal adjustment.

The need for the guidance service is implicit in the individual needs, problems and differences. With our innumerable regional varieties, each pupil has a peculiar social, cultural, linguistic, economic and environmental background. He or she needs help in various problems of personal adjustment. The pupil needs constructive educational guidance in his school work and in choosing various social activities. When the curriculum is varied, each pupil will need help in choosing his courses and programs of study. He will need help in choosing a school or college. He will need still greater help in choosing the vocational courses suited to his interests, aptitudes, and eventually, in choosing his life vocation. In the present school system we are aware of a large number of failures among students due to this significant lack of help and guidance in their personal, educational and vocational problems.

In order to improve the whole educative process and achieve the educational objectives, it is essential to introduce the guidance program as an integral part of the school curriculum. The American schools and colleges offer two kinds of guidance service-general guidance for personal and educational adjustment and vocational guidance for vocational adjustment. "Guidance is coming to be regarded as that

inseparable aspect of the educational process which is particularly concerned with helping individuals discover their needs, assess their potentialities, develop their life purposes, formulate plans of action in the service of those purposes and proceed to their realization."[1] The specific objective of vocational guidance is to help pupils plan and prepare for their occupational careers. "Vocational guidance is the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for, enter upon, and progress in it. It is concerned primarily with helping individuals make decisions and choices involved in planning a future and building a career--decisions and choices necessary in effecting satisfactory vocational adjustment."[2]

These viewpoints about general guidance and vocational guidance should indicate the scope and vital importance of guidance programs in a school system. In our national school system we may not be able to provide elaborate guidance services all at once. The basic aim will be achieved if each class teacher is trained in the knowledge and techniques of general guidance service so that he may serve as a counsellor to each pupil of his class. Moreover, at least one teacher in each school should be trained in the knowledge and techniques of vocational guidance so as to be able to serve as vocational counsellor. In the new school system we must immediately achieve the simple and basic objectives as stated by Ruth Strang: "that every student should have a counsellor who knows him as a whole and will help him to get the experience, information and guidance that he needs."[3]

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[1]National Society for the Study of Education, 37th Year Book, Part 1, p. 25.

[2]"The Principles and Practices of Educational and Vocational Guidance." Report of the Committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association, **Occupations: The Vocational Guidance Magazine,** XV(May, 1937), pp.772 – 78.

[3]Strang, Ruth: The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work, rev. and enl. ed., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946, p. 35.

d. Improving the Methods of Measuring Educational Outcomes. It has been pointed out in Chapter III and IV how the domination of Matriculation and other external examinations has been a formidable obstacle to the improvement of education. There is an urgent need to get rid of external examinations if the quality of education in the nation's schools is to be improved. This does not mean that the growth and development of pupils should not be assessed. The principle which needs immediate recognition is that it will be assessed internally by the class teacher and the school as a whole. Educational results must necessarily be measured in order to improve the educative process through intelligent action. For this purpose, it will be essential to know and use the latest techniques and methods provided by the science of Measure-ment and Evaluation. Measurement objectively assesses the fragmentary parts of growth on quantitative and comparative basis, while the evaluation procedures determine the quality of the whole growth of a person, institution or enterprise in terms of the set objectives. Since evaluation determines the whole growth, measurement is necessarily a part of it.

It is obvious that the new educational objectives are concerned with the development of the whole person of the learner. By examination we have been measuring only his achievement in school work and that also in a very crude way. This part of the growth must be measured by scientifically devised achievement and ability tests, which being objective could be administered by the school itself. In order to give proper vocational guidance in the new schools, there will be need to devise interest and aptitude tests. Intelligence tests will be needed so that teaching may be adjusted to the varying abilities and maturity level of individual pupils.

Although, the above tests could be standardized for each province, class teachers will have to assess the results of class work through teacher-made classroom tests. Therefore, there is an urgent need to prepare teachers in the basic techniques of measurement and also to make arrangements at the provincial level to prepare standardized tests. The Education Departments, which hitherto have handled only

personnel administration, must have a bureau of research to prepare instructional material and standardized tests and to carry on educational research in other fields.

On the other hand, the educational objectives are statements of values, attitudes, abilities and understandings which cannot be measured quantitatively in terms of fragmentary tests. The growth of the learner as a whole -- spiritually, emotionally, socially and intellectually -- would be judged only through the quality of his judgment and behavior in all kinds of activities both in and out of school. Only a complete personal record of the student, including his achievement in school work, can show his whole growth in terms of spiritual and moral integrity, individual and social competency, economic efficiency and civic responsibility. Therefore, it is essential to know the latest methods and techniques of school - record system and to develop our own methods and techniques to fulfill the needs of the national schools. This is again the task for our teachers, colleges and the bureau of research in the Department of Education.

Apart from evaluating the growth of the individual pupil, the growth and efficiency of the school or the school system as a whole in terms of a set of educational objectives could only be assessed by evaluation procedures. It is, therefore, essential to understand and stress the importance of evaluation in the national system of education. Without it the administration and the society will not know what our schools are doing and what changes are essential to improve the quality of national education.

e. Improving the Quality of School Equipment. It will cost money to improve the quality of school equipment, which at present is not only poor but the poorest. It will cost money to have a truly national education. Education of the people ranked lowest with the foreign government in the scale of public responsibilities. Therefore, there were many promises but no money for education. If the national and provincial governments intend to get rid of this past legacy and regard the advancement of national education as their primary concern, they must pay for it. Money will have to be spent to improve, among other factors affecting the educative process, the quality of school equipment. There are some minimum essential needs which ought to be satisfied immediately:-

i). **School buildings:** There is an urgent need to provide healthy school buildings particularly for the nation's primary schools. These buildings must provide for the needs of school museums and activity programs of the children. In the rural areas it is essential to attach teachers' living quarters to the school buildings.

Although high schools buildings are comparatively in better shape, they do not provide for some basic educational needs, viz., a library building, a school auditorium, and a health center (gymnasium). There is urgent need for the nation's high schools to have library buildings large enough to accommodate books and provide sufficient seating arrangements where pupils can study. The school auditorium is most essential in serving as a social center for receptions and social activities which must be an essential part of the new school curriculum. Lastly, the health center is most urgently needed for improving and building up health habits among the nation's children and youth.

ii). **Audio - Visual Aids.** The quality of instruction can be greatly improved through the use of audio - visual aids. Our schools all have the dull appearance of only walls and desks. They have no colour or voice for life and living in them. In the primary schools the situation could be improved without any cost by drawing upon the rich resources of rural and village life, which provide enough interesting instructional material for school museums and the activity programs in the schools. However, it is essential that the Education Department provides enough of the basic equipment which is needed for the learning and play activities of the children.

In the high schools, there should be at least one radio set, one projector and enough chart material in each school.

Moreover, the library, the school auditorium, and the health centre should be provided with their basic requirements.

f. **Improvement of Administration.** Administration of the school system is an important overall factor which affects the quality of the whole educational enterprise. It affects directly all the factors in the educative process–curriculum, teacher, pupil, equipment of the school, and evaluation of the educational results. Only good organization and administration of the school system can improve the quality of education in a given society. As the present system of educational administration has been an integral part of the whole colonial administration, it has largely failed to fulfill its educational responsibilities. It is authoritarian, static and control–ridden. Some basic changes are essential if educational administration is to give responsible leadership in the reconstruction of national education.

i) **From Authoritarian to Social.** Education is a human enterprise concerned with the development of the human person. It is simultaneously a social endeavour to improve the conditions of society through the social intelligence and social action of its educated members. Educational administration, therefore, is essentially a social policy to guide this social endeavour. It is directly related to the ideals and objectives which society wants to achieve through the education of its members. A social policy by becoming authoritarian isolates itself from the society and defeats its own purpose.

Educational administration must necessarily operate as an organic framework of human relations and social efforts. It must necessarily be a framework of reciprocal social relations with the society, the local community, the schools of the community and all their members -- the parents, the teachers, the pupils, the supervisors, and the administrators. The administrative policies and procedures, therefore, must be social and democratic in character and directly related to the development of the educational objectives in each individual who participates in the educational enterprise. In order to direct the new system of national education towards the achievement of its objectives, the provincial administration must reject its former authoritarian role and adopt the new social and democratic policies and procedures.

ii) **From Static to Dynamic.** Educational administration is primarily concerned with effecting and directing social change

through organized education. Since processes of social changes are continuous, the administrative policies and procedures must be dynamic to meet the challenge of new social problems and evolving social situations. To fulfill its responsibilities under national education, educational administration cannot remain a static setup. It cannot afford to operate, as before, on the basis of rules which are laid down for the next twenty - five years. Administrative policies and procedures must be restated continuously in the light of every new experience. Moreover, they must be flexible enough to allow for functional adjustments.

iii) **From Rigid Control to Active Promotion.** Hitherto the Primary function of educational administration has been to control education. Being an integral part of political administration, it has been an effective apparatus of control. Its policies and procedures have controlled every aspect of the educative process. The curriculum, the teachers, the supervisors, the examinations have all been effectively controlled. In a centralized system of education this control has been particularly oppressive. It has killed initiative and freedom in every aspect and branch of education. In the scheme of national education, the educational administration, instead of **controlling** , must **actively promote** the growth and development of every participant in the educational endeavour. It must promote initiative, freedom and creative efforts in every aspect of the educative process. Teachers must have freedom for creative efforts in teaching and curriculum designing; pupils must have freedom to choose their curriculum; and the administrators must have freedom to involve useful policies and procedures. The control–center of the present administration must become an **organic power - center** in the national system of educational administration. It must receive proposals and suggestions from its various units -- schools, community and supervisors; and reshape them into new policies and put them back at the disposal of those units for their functional use.

iv) **Administration as a Profession.** In the present system of education, administration has been a safe refuge for the educated layman. There is hardly any realization that educational administration is an art and a profession. The

present system of educational administration being primarily based on giving orders and exacting obedience, has little developed any scientific procedures to fulfill its various important technical responsibilities related to organizing, managing, conducting and improving the educational enterprise. The Education Departments have hardly evolved any sound administrative procedures by means of which any educational objectives could be easily achieved and best achieved. There has been hardly any professional approach to securing proper men, needed money and useful material. Almost everything has been done through authoritarian redtapism and, in a fragmentary way.

It is essential that under the national system of education, administrators and school supervisors should be trained for their profession. In a developing system of education, special training and professional competency are necessary to carry out the tasks of planning policies and procedures, organizing the institutional structure, estimating the cost and the personnel, directing supervision, coordinating various activities and efforts, evaluating and reporting educational results, and budgeting the accounts. One of the most urgent tasks in the reconstruction of national education is the professional training of administrators and school supervisors. It has been seen in Chapter III and IV how the quality of education could not be improved because of the lack of proper inspection and supervision. As far back as 1929, the Hartog Committee had expressed the need for a "strong inspecting staff... if close touch is to be kept with local conditions and requirements and if sound advice is to be available to those whose task it is to frame an economical and well-directed plan of improvement and development."[1] In the national education it will be the professional responsibility of the school supervisors to help improving the quality of the educative process. He will have to work with the school, the individual teacher, and the community to solve the various educational problems. He will be the main source of expert professional advice, for which he must have complete professional preparation. Therefore, it ought to be one of the

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[1]Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission: Interim Report, p. 68.

main responsibilities of professional education to prepare competent supervisors for the nation's schools.

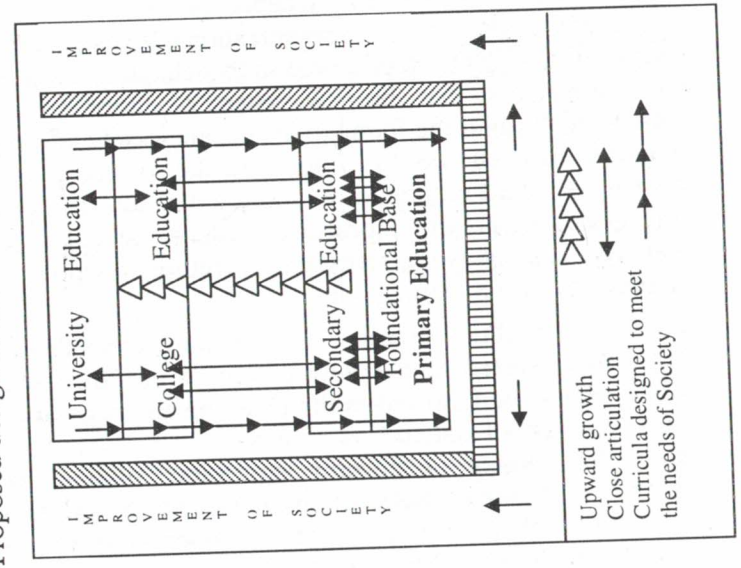
Some Specific Problems And Proposals

A. The Structural Organization of the Various Stages of National Education. It has been pointed out in Chapter III that the present system of education was first consolidated at the college stage and then extended downwards to high schools and lower secondary schools. This concept of "downward filtration" was rooted in the dual consciousness of the high and the low, the rich and the poor, the classes and the masses. The result was that while the higher stages of education received greater attention, the advancement of primary vernacular education was neglected. Moreover, the nature of the downward extension and of the disparity between the English and the vernacular instruction made the problem of articulating the various stages of education difficult. The gap between the primary and secondary stages was particularly widened due to many factors such as: the compartmentalized structure of the high schools (including English secondary schools), which did not grow out of primary schools but were extended from above as the lower appendage to college education; identification of secondary education with instruction in English; low opinion of primary education and vernaculars; and the distinction between
the masses and the "directing classes" and the corresponding distinction between the vernacular and English instruction.

In the present system of education, therefore, there is neither unity nor articulation between the primary and secondary stages. Secondly, the downward extension and consolidation of the school system during the past one hundred years did not reach the primary stage which has remained disorganized and neglected. Thirdly, the secondary school system having extended downward as the lower appendage to the college education, is primarily geared to the college entrance requirements. Alternatively, it prepared pupils for lower jobs in the government service, which is the ultimate objective of English instruction. The whole educational system is little related to the needs of the society.

Chart – VI

Proposed design of educational organization



Present Scheme of Education

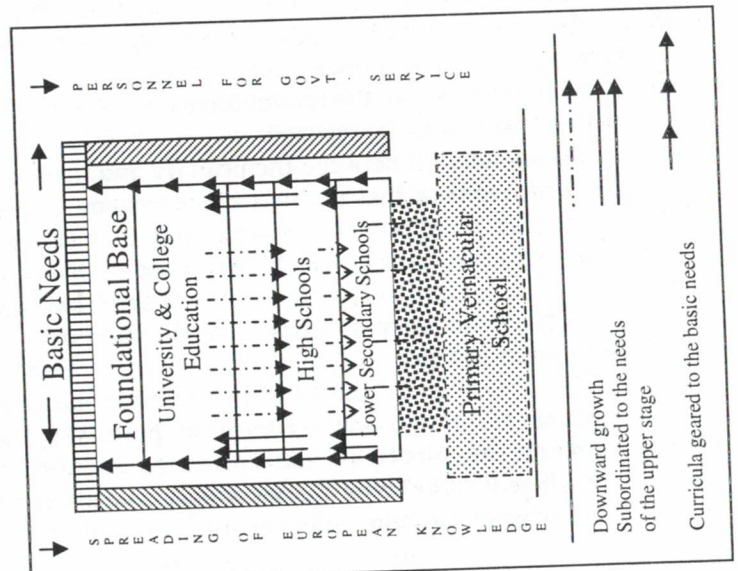


Chart V shows the scheme of present educational structure and also the new organizational design of national education as it has been proposed in this chapter. It has already been emphasized that the new system of national education must be built upon the foundations of our society and must be related to the basic need of improving the society. In order to build up a sound scheme of national education, the plan and purposes of the present educational structure must be radically changed. The following steps are, therefore, essential for the purpose of new reorganization:

a). The traditional policy of downward extension should be reversed and a new policy of upward expansion should be followed in the planning and organization of the school system.

b). The policy of upward expansion implies that the foundational base of primary education must be strengthened first. It also implies that any upper educational stage should rest on the foundations of the lower stage. This means that the upper stage should be articulated to the lower stage, and that the lower stage should not be subordinated to the needs of the upper stage.

c). On the basis of (b), the secondary education should be articulated to the primary education while the college education should be articulated to secondary education. The present subordination of the secondary education to the requirements of college education must, therefore, be rejected.

d). An articulation between the primary and the secondary stages requires that the two–block system described in Chapter III should be rejected and that the essential unity and continuity between the primary and secondary stages should be established by having a unified educational ladder up to the end of the secondary stage.

e). The principle of unity and continuity between the primary and secondary education postulates that the present monopoly of the "directing classes" or the intelligent "elite" over the secondary education must be abandoned in the scheme of national education. Instead of the present secondary English schools being

selective in character, there should be a selective part in the varied curricula of the secondary schools to meet the needs of the selected "elite" or exceptional pupils.

B. Place of Languages in the School Curriculum. The educational experience of the past one hundred years has conclusively proved that the dominance of English over the school curriculum has resulted in an inferior quality of learning and has also checked the growth and development of both the national and the vernacular languages. This experience indicates that it is educationally unsound to teach any language other than the vernacular at the primary stage, or to employ any language other than the vernacular as medium of instruction at the early secondary stage. This basic truth learned at the cost of hundreds and thousands of failures among the school children and youth throughout the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent is important enough to be utilized in determining the place of languages in the new school curriculum under the national system of education.

The problem of teaching languages in the national schools in Pakistan is, in fact, a crucial one. Pakistan is richer by its linguistic variety but at the same time, this cultural advantage raises an educational problem, the solution of which requires the best thought and attention of the national educators. Any extreme proposal to abolish or discourage the development of the well-established provincial languages must necessarily be discussed because it would seek to destroy a substantial part of the nation's cultural achievement, breed provincial discontent and must eventually be doomed to failure. Moreover, the ideal of free, compulsory, primary education could be easily and speedily achieved only through the media of provincial vernaculars.

Secondly, apart from the development of the vernaculars, there is an urgent need to popularize the knowledge of Urdu, the national language of Pakistan.

Thirdly, the whole tradition of our civilization is rooted and preserved in the Arabic and Persian languages and, therefore, a basic knowledge of either of the two could not be excluded from the curricula of the national schools.

Fourthly, the knowledge of English is one of the main contributions of the British system of education which must be retained and continued. After national independence, the knowledge of English is far more important for the nation than before. The national needs in the spheres of inter-national commerce and diplomacy as well as in the fields of science and technology cannot be adequately met without a minimum essential knowledge of English. Moreover, the knowledge of English is important for the purpose of promoting better understanding between Pakistan and the Western countries.

Thus, it seems that the arrangement ought to be made to include the teaching of vernacular, the national language(Urdu), the cultural languages(Arabic and Persian), and one language of international importance (English) in the curricula of the nation's schools. Out of these four languages, the knowledge of the vernacular and the national language is of primary importance for every citizen of Pakistan, and, therefore, every pupil must have a thorough understanding of them at the completion of high school education. So far as the cultural languages (Arabic and Persian) are concerned, a basic acquaintance (reading and understanding) of either of the two, preferably Arabic for the Muslim students, may be required of every pupil at the completion of the high school stage. The study of English should be compulsory only for those who are preparing for university education. However, any compulsory course in English must be a simple basic course, although provision may also be made for an optional advanced course for those pupils who may have the ability and interest to study English more intensively.

It is for the educational authorities in each province of Pakistan to plan and introduce the language courses in the secondary schools and then modify them in the light of experience. It is, however, of utmost importance to promote the study of national language in each province because the ultimate strength of organized education on the national level must necessarily depend upon the strength and development of a unified national language. In order to minimize the gulf between the various provincial vernaculars and the national language, the first essential step is to adopt a common script. For this purpose the **nasakh** should be adopted as the common script in the whole of Pakistan. The script of Urdu, therefore,

must be changed from **nast'aliq** to **nasakh** script. Adoption of **nasakh** will facilitate the use of typewriters and the publication of books and newspapers in type form which, besides numerous other advantages, are essential for the speedy progress of national education.

In the light of past experience with the teaching of English and the vernaculars and also considering the new need of promoting the cause of national language as well as of the nation's cultural languages, the following steps seem to be important in adjusting the teaching of languages in the new national schools.

a). No other language beside the vernacular[1] should be taught as a compulsory language in the primary grades.

b). Teaching of national language(Urdu) should be compulsory throughout the secondary stage.

c). In order to facilitate the teaching of national language in all the provinces, the **nasakh** script should be adopted for both the Urdu as well as the provincial vernaculars.

d). No language other than the vernacular should be used as medium of instruction before the high school stage.

e). Under the present circumstances the use of vernaculars as media of instruction should continue at the high school stage until the conditions become favorable for the employment of Urdu as medium of instruction.

f). Steps should immediately be taken for the progressive adoption of Urdu as the medium of instruction at the college and university level. When the use of Urdu as medium of instruction is consolidated at the college level, it should be introduced at the high school stage.

g). The non-vernacular languages should be taught as **second languages** and only at the secondary school stage. Sufficient option should be provided for individual choice to suit the needs, interests, and abilities of the individual learner.

h). One way to devise a program of language courses for secondary schools providing for sufficient option for

[1]By "Vernacular," is meant the well – established provincial language through which the primary education has been imparted thus far.

individual choice and also suiting the needs of both the average and the exceptional pupils, is suggested as follows:-

i. There should be two groups of courses. The "Advanced" and the "Basic", such as follows:

Advanced Courses[1]	**Basic Courses**[2]
a) Urdu	(a') Urdu
b) English	(b') English
c) Vernacular	(c') Vernacular
d) Arabic or Persian	(d') Arabic or Persian

ii. A pupil may choose any one of the "Advanced" courses and any **other** two of the "Basic" courses, with the provision that: a pupil whose mother tongue is **not** Urdu must take either (a) or (a'), and a pupil whose mother tongue **is** Urdu must take (a) which in his case will be considered as equivalent to (a').

iii. So far as the study of English is concerned, the completion of the "Basic" courses in English should be the maximum that may be required for admission to college.

c. Local vs. Centralized Control. The many harmful effects of the rigid centralized control and authoritarian character of the present educational system have already been described. This centralized control during the colonial period

[1]The "Advanced" course in English shall not be higher in level from the English courses now taught in the secondary English schools. The advanced course in Urdu shall not be of a lower level than the Urdu courses taught in the secondary schools in the Urdu speaking areas thus far. The "Advanced" courses in "Arabic or Persian" and vernacular shall be of a higher level than the courses taught so far in the secondary schools.

[2]"Basic" courses in Urdu shall be simplified in order to suit the abilities of those pupils whose mother tongue is not Urdu. Similarly the "Basic" courses in English will be far simpler than the present English courses. These courses should be preferably on the line of "Basic English." The "Basic" courses in "Vernacular" and "Arabic or Persian" shall be put the same level as the present ones but must be improved in contents and organization.

has most adversely affected the private community schools which enjoyed complete freedom under the Indo-Islamic system of education and have had the democratic features of community cooperation, freedom of teaching and flexible curricula. Continuation of the centralized control will eventually wipe out the remainder of these local community schools, which can prove to be the most effective agencies for both the community welfare and the spread of mass education.

This loss of community schools during the British period was partially remedied through the gradual development of Local Boards and Muncipalities and the educational function was again brought nearer to the community through these local bodies. It has been shown in Chapter III how they made ever-increasing financial contributions for the spread of primary education among the masses. But the adverse recommendation of the Hartog Committee (1929) released the forces of opposition against them with the result that the tendency of extending rigid centralized control over the primary education has become strong among the officials during the recent years. With the achievement of national independence these local bodies have already been deprived of the management and control of primary education.

It is important that this policy of centralizing the control of all branches of education should be revised by the authorities concerned for the following reasons:

In the first instance, the tradition of Islamic education shows that while education has been legally a State responsibility, the control and management of schools have always rested in the hands of the local communities. It has been seen in Chapter II that during the Mughal period the State provided the necessary financial support and the educational leadership while the actual control and management of the educational institution was in the hands of the local communities.

Secondly, the local bodies have been developed during more than seventy five years of the British rule and the control and management of primary education has been vested in them. Although education has been a State responsibility, the principle has been firmly established that the control and management of primary education is a local function. If these local bodies are weak, corrupt and ineffective, steps should be taken to improve them and not to deprive them of their

legitimate function. In fact, similar charges have also been made in the past against many departments of the government and, therefore, the governmental control of primary education cannot automatically remedy its defects.

Moreover, it is essential to realize that with the achievement of national independence the need for developing local initiative through the local bodies is far greater than before. In an evolving social democratic state of Pakistan it is essential that the control of education must be kept close to the people.

The control of education in the U.S.A. and the U.K. is vested in the local communities and this democratic practice is mainly responsible for the great educational advancement of these two countries. In Pakistan, the development of national system of education and its steady progress will, to a large measure, depend upon the local initiative and on the local control of education. The assumption of educational control by any provincial government under the present circumstances could only be justified as a temporary measure to achieve the ideal of universal, free, compulsory primary education within the shortest period. But to support this move and deprive the local Boards of all powers of control and management of primary education permanently, is against our own educational tradition, contrary to the practice prevalent in the Western democracies, and hazardous to the cause of democratic ideals of Pakistan.

It is essential that the local, provincial and Federal relations regarding educational responsibility, control and finance should be clearly defined by a national committee or commission. The following principles are suggested on the basis of the above discussion regarding such relations:

a). Public education is a State responsibility which was delegated to, and now firmly rests in, the autonomous provinces of Pakistan. Therefore, it has legitimate claims primarily on the Provincial revenue and ultimately on the revenue of Federal Government.

b). The control and management of education must rest with the local community and their local bodies on the basis of our own educational traditions, the practice evolved during the British rule, and in accordance with the democratic ideals of Pakistan.

c). The provinces should provide educational leadership to the local bodies through an effective system of departmental supervision and inspection.

d). The local bodies should be given greater powers of taxation to make greater contribution to the cause of education.

e). The local share of financing the minimum national program of primary education should be so fixed as to allow the local bodies a substantial margin for further improvement of the school system.

f). The provinces should increase their financial support to education by tapping new resources of taxation, particularly for the advancement of education.

g). The Federal Government must assist the provinces in carrying out the minimum national program of free, compulsory, primary education. Those provinces which have greater educational need as compared to their total annual revenue must receive greater financial support from the Federal Government. While each province must receive a minimum amount per census child, the Federal aid should be distributed in direct proportion to the number of children to be educated in each province and in inverse proportion to the ability of each province measured in terms of the annual revenues.[1]

In conclusion it may be stated that the reconstruction of national education as suggested in this chapter will, in the centralized system of education in each province of Pakistan, depend to a considerable extent upon legislative and administrative action. However, legislative and administrative changes will not by themselves effect the educational change and

[1]A bill for Federal aid to education (8472) which is before the American Senate envisages this objective basis of distributing Federal aid for education to the States.

and improvement unless a supply of teachers adequate both in quantity and quality is available to improve the quality of whole educative process in the nation's new schools. Therefore, simultaneously, there is an urgent need for the reconstruction of teacher education in Pakistan in order to prepare the type of teachers needed to accomplish the task of educational reconstruction.

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Chapter VI

PROPOSALS FOR THE RECONSTRUCTION OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN

Importance of Teacher Education

The reconstruction of the national system of education and its operational success must depend upon the quality of the nation's teaching profe-ssion. Securing properly trained teachers has been emphasized as a number one problem by the framers of every educational scheme in British India. The Zakir Hussain Committee, while drawing up the Wardha Scheme of Education (1936 - 1937) said: "We are convinced that unless this difficult problem (of securing suitable teachers) is tackled, the scheme will have little chance of success."[1] The formulators of the official plan of Post-War Educational Development in India (1944) emph-asized that success will not be achieved unless the teaching is effective, and that "Attention must now be turned to what is in fact the predominant factor in the success of all education, viz., the quality of the teacher ...."[2]

The importance of teachers does not lie only in carrying out a scheme of education efficiently. They are not just competent workers discharging their school responsibility regularly and conscientiously. They are above all active nation-builders since they are concerned with the preparation of nation-builders. The power of the teaching profession has been

[1]Educational Reconstruction, etc., (Wardha Scheme), Vora % Co., Publishers, Ltd., Bombay, 1938, p. 38.

[2]Central Advisory Board of Education Report on Post – War Educational Development, pp. 3 and 8.

recently demonstrated in educationally advanced countries. It is generally admitted that the last Franco - Prussian War was won by the work of the German schoolmasters while the early Japanese–Russian War was won through the general literacy in the Japanese army.[1] It was the work of German school teachers with the German youth which, within two decades after World War-I, raised defeated Germany to the status of a world power.

Since World War II, the educationally advanced nations have pinned their faith on the teachers of their children and youth. When England was subjected to heavy German air attacks in 1941, the London Times wrote: "Upon the teacher, as guide, counselor and instructor of the young, devolves the greatest responsibility in this hour of Britain's crisis."[2] In America, the Commission on Teacher Education declared in 1944: "Teaching is indispensable to the preservation and improvement of any nation. Through teaching, the powers of youth are drawn out and disciplined in practice. Through teaching, the values that characterize a culture are built into the personalities of those, in whose hands that culture's fate must lie. Through teaching, a people's capacity to meet change in ways that increase the national welfare is strengthened."[3]

This same kind of faith in the teachers of the nation and in the power of teaching is needed in Pakistan at this critical period of transition in social, political, cultural and economic life of the nation. Acting upon this faith we must devise urgent and appropriate programs for the sound education of the nation's teachers. It is encouraging that the principle of **teachers as nation-builders** has been accepted and laid down by the Primary and Secondary Education Committee of the Pakistan Educational Conference (November–December, 1947): "The Committee agreed that a properly trained and reasonably well–paid teaching profession was essential to the building up of a great State."[4]

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[1]From the notes on a classroom lecture by E.S Evenden, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

[2]"The London Times,: quoted in **School life**, Official Journal of the U.S Office of Education, Vol. XXVII, Oct., 1941, p. 8

[3]Commission on Teacher Education: Teachers For Our Times, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1944, p. 23.

[4]Proceedings of the Pakistan Educational Conference, p. 21.

Education of Teachers Directly Related to the Needs of the Local School System

The basic concept that the teachers must be prepared as **nation–builders** with adequate professional competence to meet the needs of **national education** indicates that the education of the teacher must necessarily vary in different school systems of different societies. Even in the same society, teacher education must necessarily be related mainly to the varying school systems of the various parts of the country. In Pakistan, therefore, the teachers in each province must be prepared to meet the needs and solve the problems of the school system of that province. This basic principle could be easily achieved under the provincial autonomy in the federation of Pakistan, since education is entirely a provincial subject. The Primary and Secondary Education Committee of the Pakistan Educa-tional Conference has already, therefore, suggested that "The Provinces should take necessary steps to ensure (i) the proper training of teachers and (ii) an adequate scale of salaries."[1] In each province, again, the preparation of teachers must be directly related to the needs of the schools in each area and district in which they will have to work.

However, in each local school system there are problems which are common to the schools of the whole nation. Therefore, as in the case of national education, certain broad principles and policies could be discerned for the kind of teacher education needed for the national school system in the social democracy of Pakistan. For this purpose it will be helpful to know the basic principles and the present trends in teacher education in the Western democracies, where teachers are invariably prepared to meet the needs of the local schools in which they are employed.

A Representative Viewpoint about the Kind of Teachers Needed for the Schools of England and Wales.

The leading viewpoints about the education of teachers in every society emerge from the society's concept of education for its children and youth. In England some of the current viewpoints as to what kind of person a teacher should be, what he should know, and what he should be able to do, are stated

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[2]**Loc., cit**

by the Ministry of Education in broad general terms as follows:

> Every teacher should have a good general education, and in particular be able to read, write, speak, and listen to his own language intelligently. The English language is the prime instrument of English education. A teacher must be an educated person. But this does not mean that he should necessarily have amassed a great amount of knowledge, though obviously, he cannot teach what he does not understand. The hallmark of a good teacher is that he is himself always learning and always developing his knowledge and understanding of children and young people. In short, a teacher should be a person who, because of his attitude to knowledge, to ideas, to his fellows and to life generally, is better educated today than he was yesterday and will, tomorrow, be better educated than he is today.
>
> Those who are thinking about teaching as a career should realize that nowadays schools do more than instruct pupils in a number f academic subjects. They are concerned with the all–round education of lively boys and girls. The curriculum of a sensible school, no matter what the age of children, provides for the practice and enjoyment of music and other arts, and of skills and crafts of many kinds; and by no means least the practice and enjoyment of health in and out of the classroom and gymnasium. Physical education including games and other outdoor activities is an essential part of school life. There is also for older children that range of studies, including "current affairs," which, though it embraces aspects of such subjects as literature, history, geography and science, may be broadly grouped under the title of "education for citizenship." Moreover, school activities are not limited to what goes on at set times in classrooms, laboratories, workshops, playgrounds or playfields. There are school societies of all kinds. There may also be parents' associations and many other activities which make demands on a teacher's time and energy, such as school journeys to places of interest both at home and abroad.
>
> But a teacher is not involved only with children and parents; he is a member of a school staff with the interests, and it may be the idiosyncrasies of his colleagues to consider. He therefore should be adaptable person and skilled in the art of good human relations. Finally, he should not be so absorbed in the work of the school and the education and welfare of the children that he has no private life of his own. It is a positive advantage for a teacher to have some personal interests which, at proper times absorb him to the exclusion of all thought about school, colleagues, parents and children.[1]

From broad and general statement, it is obvious what kind of teachers the school systems in England and Wales are looking for. The important qualities required of a teacher are that:

(1).**he should be an educated person who should continue to grow educationally.** That is, he should have a sound general education and should be able to grow in his general education in life;

(2).**as a teacher he should be able to handle his professional work** in the school which is concerned with the education of children and youth in aesthetics, arts and crafts, health "current affairs" or "citizenship," and in various activities of life;

(3)**he should be an "adaptable person and skilled in the art of good human relations"** to be able to work with children, parents, and the members of the staff; and

(4)as an individual, he should be resourceful enough to make the best use of his leisure time for the welfare of his private life.

In the development of these characteristics, the education of teachers in this situation will mainly be concerned with the preparation of the prospective teacher as an individual, as a citizen, as a member of the profession, and as a member of the society "skilled in the art of human relations."

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[1]Ministry of Education: Teaching as a Career, (England and Wales), His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1945, pp. 3 –4.

Leading Viewpoints about the Education of Teachers in America

In America, following the completion of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers in 1933, the Year Book Committee of the National Society of College Teachers of Education in 1935 discussed "a few of the fundamental phases of the National Survey, namely, Teacher Supply and Demand and Certification; Selective Admission and Selective Promotion, Curriculum Content and Organization; and Directed Teaching ... and set forth a body of principles which the Committee felt to be basic to a constructive program in these areas.[1] For the present discussion, the principles of curriculum construction set forth by the Committee for the education of American teachers are particularly important.

In their introduction to these principles, the Committee recognized that in any country there must necessarily be a variety of programs of teacher education. A greater unity and uniformity is desirable only in the "**basic principles**" underlying these programs. According to the Committee:

> A careful examination of programs of teacher education in many countries of the world reveals a wide variety of pattern for practically every type of professional service. This is strikingly true in our own country, as shown by the report of the National Survey of Teacher Education. The fact is widely recognized that greater uniformity, particularly in respect to the basic principles involved, would doubtless be advisable[2].

The Committee expressed the following viewpoint which is important as an introduction to their projected principles of curriculum construction:

> *For more than a century, America has been studying deliberately various problems relating to the education*

[1]National Society of College Teachers of Education: "The Education of Teachers," **Yearbook XXIII**; University of Chicago, Illinois, 1935, p.1.

[2]**Ibid.,** p. 72.

education of teachers. Throughout this period, one experiment has followed another in efforts to prepare teachers to assume intelligently the responsibilities which society delegates to them. One of the impressive lessons, which a century of effort has taught, is that instruction of prospective teachers must be continuously revised in the light of changing social needs and the result of experimentation. There is clear evidence also that adequate reforms can often be effected only through more or less radical departures from current practice. A survey of the situation today shows clearly that we face the responsibility of a deliberate and thorough going study of the basic problems relating to curricula for teachers.

The principles upon which this report is based are stated somewhat categorically. One might say that they form the creed of teacher education for the use in any type of higher institutions that prepare teachers. They are based on evidence presented in the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, on the evidence and judgments presented in various recent discussions of the problems involved, in analyses of many forward–looking curricula for teachers, on previous statements of principles, and on the judgments of experts in the field. The purpose of the discussions in this section is to explain and illustrate principles that are proposed. Although presented separately, it is obvious that the principles do not operate singly in actual practice; a combination of all or most of them is usually essential in dealing intelligently with any broad curriculum problem.[1]

The principles were stated by the Committee as follows:

1. The program for the education of teachers at any level should be based on their needs as individuals, as citizens, and as members of the teaching profession.

[1]**Ibid.,** pp. 72 – 73.

2. The education of teachers should include a broad general education, adequate professional preparation, and supplementary cultural contacts which make for a truly liberal education.
3. Breadth of general education should be directed towards sound scholarship and a cultural background in the major areas of human experience.
4. Admission to professional curricula for teachers should pre–suppose satisfactory attainments in the fields of general education, demonstrated proficiency in the various forms of expression, and the possession of desirable study habits, attitudes, and interests and essential personal and social qualities.
5. Professional curricula should be determined chiefly by the nature of the educational service to be rendered.
6. Professional curricula should be differentiated according to the major types of educational service to be rendered.
7. The preparation provided should ensure adequate breadth and depth of scholarship in the fields of specialization.
8. The contacts provided in the various fields studied should promote an understanding of basic concepts, principles, relationships, and generalizations rather than the mere acquisition of the facts or information, however well organized.
9. The work provided should be continuous in thought and organization and inherently sequential.
10. The method of study should be considered a constituent part of the curriculum and should be designated to promote sound independent scholarship and professional competence.
11. The forms of instruction and all contacts between student and teacher are essential aspects of the curriculum.

12. The curriculum should include opportunities and experiences designed to develop personal, social and professional qualities that characterize a superior teacher.
13. Election within a curriculum should be conditioned by the nature of the work, for which the student is preparing and by his special background, abilities and needs so conceived, the program of each student should be based upon individual guidance.
14. Each curriculum should provide sufficient contact with the practice of teaching and with other major activities of the teacher to ensure efficiency.
15. Attainments in any field, the completion of the curricula and approval for teaching should be measured qualitatively in terms of the student's accomplishments in developing controls demanded by the work, for which he is preparing, rather than by the requirements of a given number of years, hours or points of credits.
16. Before permanent appointment, a period of probation should be required, during which professional adjustment service should be provided which should be closely coordinated with the needs of the student and his pre–service education.[1]

A close study of these principles would show that the overall basic ideas have been laid down in principles (1) and (5). They stipulate that the education of teachers at any level should be based on their needs **as individuals** (both as persons and as citizens), as **members of the teaching profession,** and, in terms of **the educational work in which they will be engaged.** The rest of the principles are related to the achievement of these three basic purposes. Principles 8, 9 and 15 are particularly important in so far as they cut across all other principles in emphasizing the development of effective thinking, understanding of basic concepts and relationships rather than accumulation of factual knowledge, building up

[1] **Ibid.,** Chapter III, pp. 72 – 103.

habits of independent study, and measuring the educational growth qualitatively rather than in terms of quantitative requirements.[1]

A second, though different consensus regarding the type of teachers and teacher education in America is represented by the official reports of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. In the first report entitled "Teachers for Our Times," the Commission states that it has undertaken "to deal with two questions: First, what is the social significance of teaching and or teacher education; Second, what are the qualities that should be sought for in teachers who are to guide children and young people in the United States during the generation that lies ahead?... The Commission holds that the teacher education cannot be planned except in the light of purpose, that the purpose of teacher education is to produce good teachers, that excellence in a teacher is relative to the tasks that he ought to perform, and these tasks should be determined with reference to the nature and needs of children and of changing society in which the teaching is to be done.[2]

The Commission has elaborated its statements of the qualities to be desired for teachers needed by the schools in America today. The qualities described by the Commission in the first instance are those of "general" importance followed by "those of more strictly 'professional' significance." However, according to the Commission, the "general qualities" are not distinct from, but "shade into the professional ones."[3] Moreover, these qualities "should not be thought of as quite separate goals, some quantitatively exact attainment of each of which is to be aimed for in the case of every teacher. They call

[1]Principles 2, 3, 7, 10, 12, 13, and 16 in whole or part are concerned with the preparation of teachers as individuals (both as persons and citizens) who must have sound general education; principles 2, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, and 16 in whole or part are concerned with their professional preparation; and principles 5, 6, 13 and 15 in whole or part are stated in terms of the nature of the work in which the prospective teachers will be engaged.

[2]Commission on Teacher Education: Teacher for Our Times, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1944, Introduction xvi.

[3]**Ibid.,** pp. 156 and 161 – 62.

attention, rather, to related directions in which teachers in general should strive to develop."[1] Some of the significant statements of the Commission regarding each of these qualities are reproduced here for a clear understanding of the Commission's viewpoint.[2]

General Qualities:

Respect for Personality: "It is of basic importance that teachers should be good specimens of our culture." They "should believe in the worth of each growing personality ... Respect for others and self–respect are essential to the creation of freedom; conversely they are nurtured by the experience of freedom. Good teachers will treat all other human beings as persons whose purposes require consideration and whose potentialities deserve encouragement."

Community–Mindedness: "Friendly respect for others is basic to the establishment of sound community relations." It is important for teachers to participate genuinely in community life. "Friendliness and a sense of the values of community relations will lead teacher to take steps appropriate to themselves, and to the situation in which they find themselves".... Good teachers, therefore, "will find it possible to make many kinds of contributions to community well–being."

Relation Behaviour: "The view that our teachers should be good specimens of the American culture has led to an examination of certain implications of our national faith in freedom and personal growth, in responsible citizenship and the values of genuine community. Our belief in reason and reasonableness as proper means for dealing with problems also suggests qualities important in teachers...: Ability to deal rationally with personal and professional problems is consequently to be sought for in teachers .... Sound knowledge available for use as a result of careful study and intelligent observation; and skill in the application of that knowledge to new situations, are both essential for effective participation

[1]**Ibid.,** p. 155.

[2]For the statement of qualities and conclusion: **Ibid.,** pp. 156 – 75.

in the life of a complicated and changing civilization." "The most effective means of refining and disciplining emotional power is effort at artistic self–expression." Sharpened sensitivities and creative skill are, therefore, to be sought after in the education of teachers. The ability to see, hear and feel clearly, accurately, and for one's self is something important to cultivate. "Creative power is an aspect of teaching excellence".

Skill in Cooperation: Since, "the work of teachers is characteristically carried on in vital social surroundings, it is important that they should be skilled in collaborating with others in thinking, choosing and acting in sensitive response to a total, changing scene.... Good teaching in our time calls for skill in so working with others as to promote intelligent agreements as to what "we" need to do in order to attain "our" ends in the situation in which we find ourselves."

Towards "Professional" Qualities:

Increasing knowledge: Teaching excellence will be enhanced by breadth and integration of knowledge which are necessary to work with children, under-stand and grasp the social situation, and meet the needs of the changing times. However, standards with respect to kinds and amounts of knowledge to be required of teachers in particular grades, subjects or fields must be in terms of individual needs and their continuous growth and development. "Excellence in a teacher implies continuous growth in knowledge.... Teacher education never ends. Knowledge of where and how to obtain more knowledge is, therefore, an important part of the equipment of good teachers."

Skill in Mediating Knowledge: "To knowledge must be added the ability to mediate knowledge. Good teachers will know how to select subject matter suitable to the children with whom they work, and how to present it in ways that will make it likely that it will be genuinely absorbed. The problem is one of seizing the moment, of drawing upon resources skillfully with reference to opportunities presented."

Friendliness with Children: "Teaching is above all a human affair, a matter of personal intercourse. Teachers good for the schools that our times require will respect the personalities of those with whom the teaching relationship is established.... As friends, teachers will see children as fellow human beings, free and equal in ultimate sense of those terms to be worked with, not on or even for. They will have faith in the potentialities of these young people. They will aim to awaken self–awareness, deepen self–understanding, strengthen self–reliance. They will respect and encourage (personal) integrity."

Understanding Children: A continuing study of what is known about the processes of child growth and develo-pment must evidently be characterized as one of the basic professional elements in teacher education." The biological , psychological and socio-logical sciences offer an increasing store of knowledge about the process of human growth and development, and about the needs of children at different stages, their readiness for particular kinds of learning, and the ways whereby they may most effectively be helped. Teachers should know the general principles that have been formulated on the basis of extensive scientific research and should supplement their knowledge by attentive observation of real children of various ages, in various natural situations. "Good teacher will readily see that understanding children requires recognition of physical as well as more strictly psychological elements and changes and also of the impacts of general cultural forces and of immediate social and economic conditions. They will know that home and family relationships, for example, have great importance." The test of this knowledge about child growth and development will be the skill with which it is professionally employed."

Social Understanding and Behaviour: "A teacher needs social understanding if he is adequately to comprehend the problems that beset his pupils and that they need his help in attacking. He also needs it if he is to be aware of social trends and to exercise sound

judgment as to his function and that of his school in the midst thereof.... The teacher's professional responsibility has to do with the needs of society as well as of its children, such needs being intimately related. Continuing study of social phenomena is, consequently, to be considered the basic professional element in teacher's education." Active participation in community affairs is valuable as a means of developing effective social understanding. However, "the test of the effectiveness of such study will be the teachers, behaviour. The social understand-ing of teachers suited to our times, like their understan-ding of human growth and development, will not be purely theoretical. Their convictions as to social goals and their knowledge of social facts and forces will properly affect their teaching. They will encourage loyalty to the ends to which our culture is dedicated, and will strive to extend that knowledge which is essential as a basis for uniform social action. If this implies indoctrination, it is indoctrination that respects the truth and the personalities of those who are being taught, that relies on rational and friendly persuasion, not on cajolery or intimidation.

Good Citizenship in the School as a Society: A school is a society made up of human beings -- children, teachers, administrators -- living and working together toward common ends. Teacher and administrators together share responsibility for educational planning in a particular community or building. The success depe-nds upon their ability to cooperate democratically. "Good teachers will possess a sense of professional pride and solidarity that facilitates working together creatively under the guidance of common purposes and of the discipline that every given situation offers" .... The school presents "a group–work situation in which children, teachers, administrators and in measure parents share ....Good teachers will be adept at playing effective roles in the groups where sound attitudes are being formed, fine habits developed and patterns of cooperative endeavour perfected. They will be skillful in promoting a sense of 'we-ness' in releasing individual

powers, in providing opportunities for widespread participation in common enterprises." These qualities wi!l be developed through the preparation of teachers, and their flowering will particularly depend upon "the character of actual working situations." The responsib-ility, in this connection, of school administrators, super-visors and more experienced teachers for leadership in creating conditions conducive to individual accompli-shment in a teamwork setting deserves a special emphasis."

Skill in Evaluation: "The responsibility of each indivi-dual for sizing up his own powers, making his own choices, and guiding his own development has been stressed... Teachers certainly need to know what they are aiming at, and to check continually upon their accomplishment. For this reason, and also in order to be most helpful to others, they should understand the techniques of evaluation and be able to use them intelligently. Good teachers will be skillful in the periodical refinement of their goals, and in helping children, to use their own growing understanding to the same end .... They will understand how to interpret the results of such inquiries. They will stimulate experim-entation -- and will themselves experiment -- with new ways of working that appear to promise improvement, the consequences of which will themselves be evaluated in due course."

The more strictly professional qualities have been described thus far. There remains one quality so essential to good teaching and so broad in its bearings that it has been reserved for concluding treatment. That quality is:

Faith in the Worth of Teaching: " For this (quality) to exist, the individual must have the sense of the greatness of his profession -- of its significance for society ,for its power to benefit boys and girls. He must have no doubt that skillful teaching is essential to the preservation and improvement of our culture, to the strengthening and enlightenment of every citizen. The community should pay the teacher well for service so

necessary for its well - being but.... he should find his chief support in his own belief in what he is doing. If he does not believe in it, he should not be doing it. Thus we return once more to recognition of the primary importance of personal integrity. Teachers should be eager to learn from others, to benefit from friendly suggestion; but they should be guided finally by their own insights and their own conviction. They should share the devotion of artists to the undeviating expression of the best that is in them. They should refuse at any costs to be untrue to their own high standards."

Conclusion:" Good teachers must always vary as to the pattern of qualities that account for the excellence of each. Good teachers, in other words, are never exactly alike, and any notion that uniformity should be sought after in their education is unrealistic and dangerous. A relative weakness in certain respects can be tolerated when there are compensating strengths elsewhere. It is the balance of qualities that counts. Moreover, excellence is not a static concept. It is not something that can be attained once for ever.... In a changing world, excellence cannot maintain itself if growth does not continue. For such reasons the Commission, writing of teachers in general, has deliberately avoided quantitative treatment of the qualities selected for emphasis."

"The analysis presented is designed to indicate basic guidance for teacher education, to point out directions, in which teachers as a class must develop if our schools are to be well served. The qualities emphasized need to be borne in mind by all concerned with teacher education, and at every stage. They should be considered when recruits are sought for the profession and when selection is made among those who offer themselves for preparation or employment. They imply curricular and organizational arrangements for colleges and universities where prospective teachers are in attendance. They point to considerations of basic importance for the fostering of continuous professional development on the job. They offer guidance to young

men and women who are preparing to become teachers, and to older men and women who are eager to teach more effectively. They suggest to citizens what they must seek and be willing to pay for if their children are to be taught in ways suited to the character of our culture and the necessities of our times."

In the concluding report, the following statement of the Commission briefly sets forth the skills, abilities, understandings and knowledge that the teachers ought to have in order to discharge their responsibilities efficiently in the schools of today in America.

> The quality of teachers is -- or should be -- a matter of deepest social concern. The nation risks its entire future if it entrusts its children to the charge of men and women who are not informed, not skillful, not democratic, not devoted to young people and to their own calling. The nation needs teachers who are superbly fitted to their important task. It needs teachers who respect personality, who are community minded, who act reasonably, who know how to work cooperatively with others. It needs teachers whose native gifts have been highly developed through sound general and professional education, whose knowledge is accurate, extensive, and increasing. It needs teachers who like and are liked by children, who understand how children grow and develop, who know how to guide learning and mediate knowledge effectively. It needs teachers who live in the world as well as in the school and in the classroom, who function as good democratic citizens in all these situations. And, it needs teachers who love their work, who are skillful in evaluating for themselves how effective they are in discharging their duties, and who are continually increasing their stature as persons, citizens and professional workers.[1]

Purpose of Teacher Education in Pakistan

The fairly representative statement of the Ministry of Education regarding the kind of teachers needed in England

[1]Commission on Teacher Education: The Improvement of Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1946, p. 247.

and Wales and the consensus of the American educators regarding the type of teachers and teacher education needed in America should stimulate the thinking of educators who are concerned with the preparation of teachers in any democracy. A new and the most significant trend in the education of teachers both in England and America is obviously in the direction of strengthening their general education as persons, citizens and members of the teaching profession. There is greater emphasis particularly on developing the social intelligence and social understanding of the prospective teachers in order to enable them to understand the work, with people in general and the learners in particular. The social significance of teacher education is being increasingly recognized in these educationally advanced countries.

The kind of teachers and teacher education in Pakistan must necessarily be the part of our own social and cultural situation and must work towards the solution of our own needs and problems. Indeed, the purpose of teacher education is to produce good teachers but the "excellence in a teacher is relative to the task that he ought to perform, and those tasks should be determined with reference to the nature and needs of children and of the changing society in which the teaching is to be done."[1] The educational problems of Pakistan are largely distinctive from those of any other country, and hence the teachers in Pakistan can be competent only if they are able to carry out the educational tasks successfully. This must be the basic criterion to judge the quality of teacher education and also the quality of the teachers in Pakistan.

Although the educational tasks and the kind of teaching situation under the national school system in Pakistan will be different from what they are now, the teachers must start working with the situation as it is now. In the preceding chapter, these new tasks have been determined in terms of new educational objectives, but in order to accomplish these objectives, the new teachers must necessarily know what needs to be changed and how to change it. In other words (1) the new teachers for Pakistan **must have adequate knowledge of the new tasks to be** accomplished by them in the nation's new

[1]Commission on Teacher Education: Teachers for Our Times, Introduction xvi.

schools; (2) they **must understand what needs to be changed** to transform the present schools into truly national schools in order to achieve the objectives of national education; and (3) they **must have the needed skills and knowledge to** do their part **in effecting this change.** In terms of these three overall functions, the reconstruction of teacher education in Pakistan ought to be carried out under our present needs and circumstances. (4) Closely related to these basic tasks, the education of the new teachers should aim at their **personal development, professional competence** and **social ability to work with people,** and that (5) this education must be adjusted to the **needs and capacities of the teachers as individuals** preparing for a **specific type of work and the teaching situation** in which each one of them is likely to be placed. These functions of a new type of teacher education in Pakistan seem to be of primary importance and will be explained separately in the following pages.

1. The Education of Teachers in Pakistan should be directly related to the objectives of national education.

It is essential that teachers should be educated to help in the achievement of those objectives for which the society has established its schools. In a changing and advancing society it is hard to reach any "decision" as to what the schools should do. In a dynamic educational system there would naturally emerge from constant study and experimentation various viewpoints and trends suggesting various ways to state or achieve the educational objectives. But, it is essential that the education of the prospective teachers should have its focus in the objectives of national education which they will strive to achieve in the nation's schools.

The prospective teachers should get, therefore, in the first instance, the basic understanding of these educational objectives so that they can consciously relate each part of their training program to the overall purpose of achieving these objectives through the type of school work they will do. The direct emphasis upon, and the understanding of, these objectives at every stage and in every aspect of the education of teacher is also essential to crystallize the educational viewpoint or the personal philosophy of education of each student teacher. Such an educational viewpoint would emerge through

functional relationship of the whole training curriculum with the educational philosophy or other compartmentalized subjects. **It is essential to realize that only the teachers with a personal viewpoint on education can solve our educational problems**. Moreover, such a personal viewpoint functionally related to the achievement of educational objectives is the only effective way of integrating the preparation of the teachers with their educational tasks or the theory with their practice.

2. The Education of Teachers in Pakistan should equip the prospective teachers with basic knowledge and understanding of the educational change which is needed for the achievement of educational objectives.

Improvement always requires some kind of change: therefore, the knowledge of the change needed is essential to plan for better improvement. At present, the magnitude of educational change needed in Pakistan is far greater than in the pre - independence period. An important prerequisite to the achievement of new educational objectives is the transformation of the present system of education into a national system of education. Continuous changes and adjustments will even then be needed for the achievement of the ever-changing educational objectives. The first step towards evolving a national system of education for the achievement of new educational goals is that the prospective teachers must understand clearly what needs to be changed in the present school system.

It must, therefore, be one of the important functions of the new education of prospective teachers to help them understand clearly what needs to be changed. It is particularly important to stress this **clear understanding** because, thus far, there has been confusion about what definite changes are needed. While the national opinion is unanimous that the present system of education must be entirely overhauled, there is no clear understanding as to what specifically needs to be done. Some important factors in the policies and procedures of the present system of education which need immediate change have been analyzed in Chapters III and IV.

The prospective teachers must understand clearly the fundamental policies which sustain the present system of education and the basic changes needed in this whole area of policies and procedures, particularly in terms of finance,

control and responsibility. They must have a grasp of the problems in primary and secondary education, particularly of languages, articulation between primary and secondary education, designing of curricula, and the system of examination.

This does not imply that the subject of the history of education has the predominant importance in the education of teachers. The teaching of the history of education as a subject will not achieve what has been suggested above. This historical data must be studied functionally in relation to a specific purpose. The purpose is to understand what needs to be changed and, therefore, this area of study must be change-centered.

In conclusion, it may be made clear that this functional understanding and knowledge of change has been stressed on the basic assumption that functional knowledge must inevitably be used in bringing about the needed change.

3. The Education of Teachers in Pakistan should equip the prospective teachers with basic skills, understandings, and knowledge necessary to enable them as teachers to bring about the change which is essential for the achievement of educational objectives.

In Pakistan, we are not concerned with any stereotyped ideal of teacher education. We already have a form of teacher education but it lacks a central purpose. Our basic problem today is to bring about changes–educational, social, economic and political, in order to improve every aspect of our national life. Therefore, teacher education must necessarily be committed to the one central and functional purpose of bringing about needed changes. This is the main task for the teachers of today and tomorrow.

What a teacher ought to be must necessarily be determined in terms of what he has to do. The new teachers in Pakistan have the immediate task of bringing about changes and hence their quality must be determined in terms of their abilities to effect change for the better. The overall purpose of preparing prospective teachers in Pakistan must, therefore, be related to this basic problem of **how to bring about the needed change as a teacher.** It must be recognized, of course, that it is the joint responsibility of the legislator, the administrator, the

teacher and the community to bring about the whole social and educational change that is needed. The teacher is only one of them; but as he is the central person among them, he must share the main responsibility, particularly for educational change.

The process of changing implies removing, substituting, supplementing and directing in a program which will produce better educational results. The subject of change may be values, attitudes, contents of curriculum, methods of teaching or the nature of participation in any activity with children in and out of the classroom or with numerous other persons in and out of the school.

Some of the basic skills and understandings needed by teacher in the management of educative process are particularly those which are concerned with gathering, organizing and interpreting information regarding children and youth as a means of guiding their learning activities. Among these are included:

Gathering factual data
Organizing cumulative records
Analysis and interpretation of cumulative records
Observation, understanding and interpretation of situational behaviour
Planning home visits
Techniques of consultations and conferences with the parents
Working with parents
Understanding the family's way of life
Knowledge of methods of case study
Understanding the stages of growth and the accompanying changes in behavioural patterns
Knowledge of conditions, relationships, activities and experiences which promote wholesome development
Planning and conducting child study programs
Organizing learning activities
Planning of group–work
Knowledge of the dynamics of group–work
Techniques of guidance and adjustments
Techniques of measurement and evaluation

According to the staff members on the division of child development and teacher personnel of the Commission on Teacher Education, "One of the major inadequacies in the pre–service education of teachers to understand children is due to the fact that courses in educational psychology and child development are too limited in the range of knowledge covered to give valid concepts of the process involved in human growth, development, learning, motivation, behaviour, and adjustment."[1]

This is particularly true in the case of training schools and colleges in Pakistan where the narrow curricula provides for only formal courses in educational psychology. The concept and scope of these courses need to be broadened in order to enable the prospective teachers to acquire the basic understandings regarding the processes of human growth and development.

Moreover, the skills and knowledge needed for **working with others** successfully are essential to bring about any social change. A better understanding of human relations is particularly important in changing any aspect of education which is essentially a human enterprise. The prospective teacher must be enabled to understand every aspect of the psychology and sociology of educational change. He must be able to use numerous resources, personal as well as social and cultural for effecting adjustments.

The analysis of some basic problems in Chapter III and IV should partly indicate what the teacher should be able to remove and reject. The suggestions on educational reconstruction in Chapter V should be partly helpful in indicating **what**; **where** and **how** a prospective teacher should be able to substitute for what is rejected. More extensive studies of educational problems are essential to help the teacher in this task of educational change. But mere information and factual knowledge have their limitations. The new education of the prospective teacher should mainly develop in him effective thinking, independent approach, initiative and resourcefulness to solve the educational problems. These are the main tools,

[1]Commission on Teacher Education: Helping Teachers Understand Children, American Council on Eduation, Washington D.C., 1945, pp. 461 – 62.

with which he must be equipped by his preparation to bring about the educational change which is our basic problem.

4. The Preparation of Teachers in Pakistan should simultaneously aim at their personal development, professional competency, and social ability to work cooperatively with people.

While the three previous objectives are the immediate educational tasks for teachers in Pakistan to which their preparation must be functionally related, the present objective is the basic principle in their actual preparation as teachers. The work of teacher training institutions in Pakistan has thus far been mainly confined to preparation in academic subjects along with a narrow and stereotyped professional training. This kind of training does not provide either for the personal development or the social competency of a teacher. Although it has fulfilled its limited purpose in the present system of education, it is wholly inadequate for the nation's new teachers who have to shoulder greater responsibility under the national system of education.

The basic principle here being considered provides that the preparation of prospective teachers in Pakistan should cover three main aspects of their whole development–personal, professional and social. It must be emphasized that "personal," "professional" and "social" are not separate from one another or mutually exclusive: they are the three main aspects of an individual's whole development. The new education of teachers, therefore, must promote and integrate the personal, professional and social development simultaneously with the personality of the prospective teachers.

A. Personal Development of the Teacher: The work and life of our teacher thus far have been confined within the four walls of the schoolroom. The school being isolated from the local community, our teacher has remained isolated from the community too. As a result, his personality structure is mainly determined by his world of work which is limited to the boundaries of the school building. Full personal development implies that the prospective teacher in Pakistan will not be merely a **teacher in the school** but simultaneously a **teacher in the community,** a member of the society, a citizen of the State

and a world citizen. He will be a fully grown person with a broad knowledge and understanding of the whole life of the nation and the whole world around it. That is, besides his strictly professional education he will have a broad general education as a well–informed person and a citizen. In the words of the Ministry of Education in England, he should be "an educated person" in the complete sense of the phrase.

The prospective teacher in Pakistan must, therefore, have a sound general education. It must be emphasized that this general education represents a distinctly new concept of broad understanding of life and the whole world around, and does not mean the kind of general education in academic subjects, with which, as seen in Chapter IV, our teacher training institutions have been mainly concerned so far. The new general education will not be distinct from professional preparation but will form an integral part of the whole preparation. For the objectives of national education (as stated in Chapter V), which the prospective teacher must promote, require that he should himself have a broad understanding of the fundamental values of our culture and civilization, of the social, economic and political life of the nation, and of the international situation in the world around. Stressing this kind of broad understanding on part of the American teachers, Count says:

> It requires of the teacher far more than following of a set of prescribed rules and techniques. It even requires of him far more than a mastery of his speciality and an understanding of the nature of the learner and the learning process. It requires of him also, as a frame and guide for all that he does, a deep understanding of our American developing civilization in both its historical and world setting. It requires finally that he be sensitive to the profound moral implications of his calling–that he strives to express in his own life and work, both as teacher and as citizen, a great conception of American civilization. All training of teachers, all administrative procedures, and all efforts at curriculum construction, if not illuminated and inspired by such a conception, are destined to mediocrity and confusion of purpose.[1]

[1]Counts, George S.: Education and the Promise of America, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1945, p. 156.

What should be the kind and amount of this general education and how to impart it must necessarily depend upon the choice, ability, understanding and imagination of the staff of each training institution, upon the type of teachers each institution prepares, and upon the empirical evidence provided by actual experimentation and evaluation in each situation. Being of a broad and general character, it can neither be exactly stated nor prescribed in advance from outside. However, some broad principles which should give a general direction to this part of the curriculum may be stated as follows:

(1). **General education should aim at full self-development of the prospective teacher as a person, as a member of the teaching profession, as a member of the society, as a citizen and as a member of the world community.**

(2). General education of the prospective teacher should have an overall focus in the objectives of national education.

(3). It must start and continue simultaneously with the professional training and should go on broadening towards the completion of the period of preparation.

(4). The program of general education should constitute the required part of the preparation of every prospective teacher.

(5). General education through broad contacts with various areas of studies should develop broad knowledge and understanding of the current affairs of national and international life; it should be directed towards the development of effective thinking and power of analyzing various issues of modern life. Factual studies and information should not be the ends but only the means, by which each individual according to his own choice may try to understand broader issues of life.

(6). General education of prospective teachers should functionally relate the broad knowledge and understanding that it develops to the basic problems of human life which remain to be solved.

The Yearbook Committee of the National Society of College Teachers of Education identified the objectives of general education with the following major problems, with which it ought to be concerned:

Attempt to raise the standard of living
Adjustment to and control of physical environment
Adjustment to and cooperation with others
Achievement and maintenance of physical health
Creation, interpretation, and appreciation of art and beauty
Development of guiding principles and the search for ultimate values through science, religion and philosophy
Achievement of economic security
Acquisition and transmission of social heritage
Improvement of social heritage looking toward the fullest measure of life for all.[1]

(7). General education should, by developing methods of study and writing, and broadening the horizons of knowledge about the human world, stimulate the spirit of inquiry in the prospective teacher so that he may continue to develop in self–education.

B. Professional preparation of the teacher: The broad principle of "personal development, professional competency, and social ability" may apply to the complete preparation of any member of **any profession.** It is the distinction in the kind of professional preparation that will make a person a teacher, a doctor or an engineer. Teaching may be considered both an art and a profession, but even as an art it is technical in nature. There are distinct technical elements in the whole area of teaching work which call for an essentially professional preparation of teachers. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers in America pointed out and discussed elaborately,[2]

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[1]National Society of College Teachers of Education: The Education of Teachers, **op. cit.,** p. 80.

[2]U.S Office of Education: National Survey of the Education of Teachers Vol, VI: "Summary and Interpretations" by E.S. Evenden, Washington, 1935, pp. 93 – 125.

the following "distinctly professional elements" in the preparation of teachers, with which subsequently the Yearbook Committee of the National Society of College Teachers of Education was in complete agreement:[1]

Professional orientation with respect to education and teaching

i. **Mastery of essential educational tool.**
ii. **Knowledge of the individuals to be taught**
iii. **The presentation of the educative materials**
iv. **Organization and management of class instruction**
v. **Observation, participation and practice teaching.**
vi. **Professional integration and working philosophy of education.**

According to the National Survey: "there are of course other purposes to be served by courses in education and psychology, and all of these seven principal ones can be elaborated and supplemented, but the seven are presented as representing the minimum essentials of a teacher's professional preparation.[2]

Since these are distinctly professional elements they hold good for the professional preparation of teachers in Pakistan. The purpose of each one of them may be briefly stated in relation to our own needs as follows:

(i) **Professional Orientation:** "This should disclose to the prospective teacher the place of education in society, its relationship to other professions and the opportunities for service in the principal fields of educational work. This orientation must necessarily be given as early as possible because of its value in making the final choice of the professional curriculum to be followed.[3] "In our school system it is essential that such an orientation course should be given by the end of elementary, secondary and college education for the interest, understanding and vocational choice of our youth in the field of education. Equally it is essential to give such an orientation after admission to a teachers college. Such a course

[1]National Society of College Teachers of Education: The Education of Teachers, **op. cit.,** p. 4.

[2]U.S Office of Education: National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol, VI, **op. cit.,** p. 94.

[3]**Ibid.,** p. 93.

will fulfill two essential needs: it will facilitate a wider recruitment for the teaching profession and, most important, it will produce wider and better under-standing of the importance of education in our society.

(ii). **A functional knowledge of essential educational tools:** These tools are the professional skills and techniques which the teachers have to use in various areas of school work. Among them are included the methods of guidance, mental hygiene and personal adjustment, vocational guidance and adjustment, test construction and measurement, educational statistics, designing of curriculum and preparation of instructional materials, use of technical audio-visual aids, and methods and techniques of the process of evaluation. In the present school system there is a significant lack of any effective preparation of prospective teachers which may equip them with these professional tools. The urgency of making adequate provision in the curricula of our teacher training institutions is suggested by the very fact that these are the **essential education-nal tools,** and without tools the technical work of any profession can hardly be done.

(iii).**Knowledge of the individuals to be taught:** It is essential that a teacher have a sympathetic understanding of the characteristics of the individuals he is to teach. In many respects this phase of his professional equipment might very well be an integral part of each of the other six phases. It is certainly equal in importance to the scholarly knowledge of the material to be taught and probably more important in determining the teacher's success or failure .... Naturally the problem varies for the different school divisions but the responsibility of knowing the characteristics, limitation and possibilities of those being taught is just as great whether the teacher is working with nursery–school children, sixth–grade children, or adults in vocational rehabilitation classes.[1]

Knowledge of growth and development and knowledge of teaching and learning processes are the most important contributions of modern psychology for the improvement of educative process. Now here have these knowledge contrib-

[1]**Ibid.,** pp. 97 – 98.

uted more significantly than in the education of the child. Since in any school system the majority of learners are children, some young and some grown- ups, the important use of this phase of teachers' professional preparation lies in their work with children. And yet, as discussed in Chapter III, primary education being the most neglected stage in our educational system, our children have least benefited from these important discoveries of modern psychology. Under the authoritarian control of unsympathetic and untrained teachers, education for our children is literally an oppressive process. Nowhere is this phase of professional knowledge more urgently needed than in the preparation of the nation's primary teachers. Under general conditions of illiteracy, poor homes, and bad health conditions, the greatest possible sympathetic understanding of the physical, mental and social characteristics of the children is needed on the part of primary teachers. The lack of this professional understanding in teachers and educators has also perpetuated the hold of rigid and uniform curriculum at the secondary stage when the curriculum must be differentiated to suit the various abilities and interests of the grown–up pupils.

There is an urgent need, therefore, to strengthen this important phase of professional preparation of the prospective teachers in Pakistan. The following statement by the members of the staff of the division on child development and teacher personnel of the Commission on Teacher Education should be helpful in setting the directional goals for the kind of training which will enable teachers to understand children. On the basis of an extensive experimental program, they said:

> **Our analysis indicates that teachers who understand children show the following characteristics: (1) they think of children's behavior as caused by a series of facorst that can be identified and they, therefore, believe that boys and girls are understandable;(2) they are able to accept every child emotionally and to respect and value him as a human being; (3) they recognize that every child is unique and, therefore, they constantly seek information about each of their pupils that will enable them to know the factors that are influencing their development and behaviour; (4) they know the common development tasks that all children face during the several phases of their growth and what complications often arise as individuals with varying characters and backgrounds work at those tasks; (5) they know the more important generalizations that describe and explain human growth, development, motivation, learning and behaviour; and (6) they are well accustomed to methods of gathering and organi-zing relevant information about a child, of finding the scientific principles to which this information points as explaining the particular individual's maturity level and overt action, and of using these explanatory principles together with the pertinent data as the bases for helping the youngster meet his problems of growing up.**[1]

(iv) **The presentation of educative materials**: Obviously, it must be an essential part of a teacher's professional preparation to know how to present the educative materials to the group he is teaching, most effectively. "A teacher, in addition to being a well–educated person with a scholarly mastery of the field to be taught, must know the most effective methods of presenting his field to the age group he is to teach." In our training institutions methods of teaching have already received greatest possible attention. Surely each teacher must have some method to present the instructional material. But the test of a good method is that it should result in good learning. The principles of a good teaching method must largely be determined by the principles of good learning. Under-standing of these underlying principles is of primary importance. But in our teacher training institutions main emphasis has been on teaching the subjects by the pattern of various special methods developed by specialists in those subjects in other countries. These methods may serve as a guide for those teachers who lack professional initiative. But, teaching by pattern must necessarily block initiative to a large extent. It should be a more sound professional preparation to emphasize the underlying principles which contribute to good teaching.

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[1]Commission on Teacher Education: Helping Teachers Understand Children, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1945, pp. 19–20.

It is of utmost importance that some modifications and improvements be made in the traditional practice of teaching by patterns in our schools. Greater freedom in experimentation and evaluation is essential to explore various possibilities of improvement. In America, the trend has long since been away from the traditional practice of teaching by stereotyped methods. According to the National Survey of the Education of Teachers (1933) : "There are almost as many plans for providing prospective teachers with the knowledge of the most effective methods of teaching different subjects to different age groups (special methods) as there are institutions in which teachers are prepared."[1] This Survey pointed out four general plans most frequently followed, the following two of which should suggest a possible direction of improvement in our training institutions:

Plan C

This plan uses general methods courses either organized separately or united with observation, participation and practice teaching.... This plan may consist of a combination of the general methods courses and special methods in the different subjects or it may depend entirely upon the general methods course–separate from or united with practice teaching.

Plan D

This fourth plan provides for no separately organized special–methods courses but expects the necessary instruction on the most effective methods of teaching each subject to be presented by the subject–matter teachers as an integrated part of the subject–matter courses. This plan is commonly referred to as the "professional presentation of subject matter" or as "professionalized subject–matter courses."[2]

(v). **Organization and management of class instruction:** A knowledge of the organization and management of class instruction in the **types of schools, in which the prospective teachers in Pakistan are expected to be placed,** must be an

[1]The National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. VI, p. 101.

[2]**Ibid.,** p. 102.

essential part of their professional preparation. There is provision for this preparation in almost every training institution in Pakistan, but the scope of instruction is generally limited. The nation's new teachers will have numerous responsibilities as class teachers which must need a thorough understanding. At present, there are particular deficiencies in the areas of adjusting class work to individual needs and differences out of which arise numerous problems of discipline, and in maintaining an efficient system of children's record. The out–of–class activities and the participation of parents have been outside the scope of the teacher's work thus far.

Many professional elements may be included in this phase of professional work, such as: "the principles and problems involved in group instruction at different levels; preparation and adjustment of daily programs of work to fit different types of school organizations; handling "study periods"; adjustment of class work to individual differences; classification and promotion of pupils; the keeping of records and the making of reports; school housekeeping; the teacher's part in out–of–class activities; the organization of parent–teacher associations and the classroom teacher's relationship to the teaching profession and to other teachers.

(vi) **Observation, participation and practice teaching:** At present, in most of the training institutions in Pakistan there are no adequate facilities for practice teaching. In many of them even minimum facilities are not available due to the peculiar location of training institutions away from the neighboring schools. Secondly, there is an urgent need to have a demonst-ration school on the campus of each institution which should serve as a laboratory school. Lack of proper supervision, lack of sufficient continuity in practice teaching, lack of proper coordination between academic work and directed teaching, and a uniformly prescribed amount of practice teaching for each student teacher are some of the other serious defects which need to be remedied.

In the first instance, the concept of directed teaching needs to be broadened. It ought to be realized by the faculty that all situation, either instructional or social, can offer to the student teachers under proper guidance, opportunities for intelligent observation and useful participation.

The Sub–Committee to the Committee on Standards and Studies, and Member Institutions of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education have described the meaning and function of the professional laboratory experiences and student teaching[1] as follows:

> **Professional laboratory experiences** include all those contacts with children, youth and adults which make a direct contribution to an understanding of individuals and their guidance in the teaching–learning process.
>
> **Student teaching** is a period of guided teaching when the student takes increasing responsibility for guiding the school experiences of a given group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks.
>
> **These laboratory experiences should provide:**
>
> 1. an opportunity to implement basic concepts and ideas discussed in college classes so that the student may study the pragmatic value of the theory and check his understanding of the theory in action;
>
> 2. help for the student in seeing his needs (both personal and professional) and outlining experiences which should be included in his further study and
>
> 3. an opportunity for the student to study his ability to guide actual teaching–learning situations.[2]

It is essential that each teacher–training institution in Pakistan should set up its own criteria with respect to the scope and organization of student teachers direct experiences (observation, participation and student teaching). However, irrespective of the objectives or the size of the training institut-

[1]"Professional laboratory experiences" is an inclusive term; "student teaching" is one type of such experience.

[2]American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education; Recommended standards governing professional laboratory experiences and student teaching and evaluative criteria – Report of the Sub – Committee to the Committee on Standards and Studies and Member Institutions, 1949, p. 4. Also A.A.T.C Special Committee Report; School and Community Laboratory Experience in Teacher Education: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948, pp. 321 – 22.

ion, the scope of these direct professional laboratory experiences needs to be broadened beyond the present narrow concept of student teaching. The importance of integrating theory with practice calls for attention to and a proper sequential organization of: (1) professional laboratory experiences prior to student teaching; (2) student teaching as a professional laboratory experience; (3) professional laboratory expe-riences following student teaching; (4) guiding the student in professional laboratory experience; (5) recording and evaluating professional laboratory experiences and (6) facility-ating desirable professional laboratory experiences in the teacher education program.[1]

The Sub–committee on Professional Laboratory Experience to the Committee on Studies and Standards of American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, have in their following statements set the "directional goals" with respect to the various aspects of professional laboratory experiences, which could be used as a guide by staff groups of training institutions in Pakistan as a basis of study, evaluation and improvement of professional laboratory experiences provided for prospective teachers.

I. **The place of Professional Laboratory Experiences in the College Curriculum**. The nature of a student's preceding experiences in a given area (of professional work), rather than the age of the learner or his position in the educational ladder, is the criterion for determining the amount and place of direct experience in the college curriculum. **Professional laboratory experiences, therefore, should be an integral part of the work of each year of college."**

II. **Nature of Professional Laboratory Experiences.** "If the student is to build an action–picture of the role of the teacher in public education, there must be an opportunity to experience the work of the teacher

[1]For brief statement of these various aspects see: Lindsey, Margaret: Major Findings and Recommendations in the Study of Professional Laboratory Experiences, American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948. For details see: A.A.T.C.: Special Committee Report, School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education, American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948.

both within and without the classroom. This includes a study of the work of the school as a whole, of pupil and community backgrounds as a basis for improving the educational program, of the responsibilities of the teacher and the school in sharing in and improving community activities. The professional program should be designed to afford **opportunity for responsible participation in the major areas of the teacher's work."**

III. **Assignment and Length of Laboratory Experiences:** "Choice of laboratory situation and length of time spent there will vary with individuals. Each experience should be long enough to help the student achieve the purpose for which he entered upon it.

IV. **Guidance of professional Experiences:** "Guidance of professional laboratory experience should be at all times **in terms of basic educational principles.** Guidance should demonstrate the principles recommended for use in working with young children and youth."

V. **Guidance of professional Laboratory Experience as a Cooperative Responsibility.** "If the professional laboratory experiences are to be an integral part of the college program, the development of these experiences should be the **joint responsibility of the person directly responsible in the laboratory situation and the college representatives most closely associated with the student's activities in the laboratory situation.** Laboratory and college staff members should work together to help the students see the inter-relationships between laboratory experiences and other college activities and mutually to reinforce learning experiences.

VI. **Facilities Needed to Implement the Program of Professional Laboratory Experiences.** 'Facilities should always be viewed with reference to the goals to be achieved. They are essentially service tools and their worth and the use to which they are to be put can be judged only in terms of that which they are to serve.

The number of college students to be served, the specific curriculum design, the nature and availability of education resources in the given community, all are factors that condition decisions regarding the scope and nature of needed laboratory facilities. There is need for **laboratory facilities sufficiently extensive to provide for each student contact with normal situations, varied enough to provide contacts with different pupils and different curriculum and administrative organizations, and located for student convenience and staff accessib-ility.**[1]

While moving towards these "directional goals" in the concept and organization of direct professional experiences inclusive of student teaching, we must begin by improving the present student teaching program. The following proposals should be helpful for the improvement of student teaching programs in terms of the local needs and circumstances of each training institution:[2]

a. From the beginning of the training program, enough opportunities should be provided to the student teacher for direct professional experience through observation and participation as a conti-nuous and integral part of the learning process.

b. The intensive work of student teaching should begin late enough in the curriculum to enable the student to practice with as much of his entire equipment as possible. "It should occur at that point in the professional sequence when the student is ready to assume a growing share of the responsibility for guiding the experiences of a group of learners."

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[1]American Association of Colleges for Teachers Edcuation; Recommended Standards Governing Professional Laboratory Experiences and Student Teaching and Evalutive Criteria, **op. cit.,** pp. 5 – 11. See also the earlier A.A.T.C Special Committee Report; School and Community Laboratory Experience in Teacher Eduation, American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948, pp. 322 – 33.

[2]These proposals are based on earlier recommendations made by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers (**op.cit.,** pp.120 –24), the Yearbook Committee of the National Society of College Teachers of Education (**op.cit.,** pp. 4 – 5) and the recent statement of the Sub – Committee on Professional Laboratory Experiences of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (**op.cit.,** pp.5 – 11).

c. Student teaching should be adjusted in kind, amount and rate to the ability, experience and the need of the individual student teacher. There should be flexibility in planning instead of fixing the kind and amount rigidly in advance.

d. Student teaching should be **cooperatively planned by** those persons who are most fully acquainted and concerned, on the one hand, with the student and his needs and, on the other, with the needs and opportunities in the student's teaching situation. Usually these persons are the student's college advisor, the student himself, and the supervising teacher.

e. Practice teaching facilities should be representative of the better school conditions in which the student is expected to be employed.

f. Supervision of student teaching should be jointly shared by the supervising and colleges teachers. Initial practice teaching should be particularly closely supervised until the student teacher attains a "safety minimum of teaching skill."

g. The experience of full–time student teaching should be continuous, and as far as possible daily, over a period of consecutive weeks. Continuous daily contact, instead of weekly, with the student teaching situation are more conducive to an effective grasp of the teaching situation and a better integration between theory and practice.

h. The period of student teaching should be long enough in terms of the needs of the individual student teacher to enable him to evaluate and understand the growth of learners resulting from the guidance given.

j. No teacher should be finally certified who has not satisfactorily attained the "safety minimum of teaching skill" in terms of his own needs.

k. Work in directed teaching should be followed as far as possible by an internship period.

(vii) **Professional integration and working philosophy of education:** Practice teaching in itself is an integrating experience between theory and practice, but the main attention of the student teacher is usually focused on the skill in teaching. It is essential that the various aspects of professional training should be pulled together in an integrating short course by the end of the training period, which would enable the student teacher to see the whole purpose of his preparation. The whole of this professional equipment must be functionally related to the educational tasks that lie ahead and the educational objectives that are to be achieved. Preferably this should be a seminar course and should aim at helping the individual teacher formulate an educational viewpoint or a personal working philosophy of education.

C. Social ability to work cooperatively with people:[1] Broad general education and professional competency do not guarantee that a person would be able to work cooperatively with others. It is possible that a sound social understanding and the nature of the teacher's professional preparation may and should develop in him the ability to work satisfactorily with others. Social ability as used here implies the quality of social action in cooperative working situations which contributes to the achievement of socially useful purpose to the greatest possible satisfaction of all. The need for cooperative social behaviour, particularly in a teacher, is so very crucial that it calls for **deliberate efforts** to integrate this quality in his personality.

This need arises out of the conviction that the objective of organized education is to improve the society. However, "society is not a collection of individuals but a series of relationships between them."[2] These relationships could be established, realized, advanced and integrated only through

[1]What is implied for a teacher in the following discussion is equally true in case of an administrator.

[2]De Huszar, George R.: Practical Applications of Democracy, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York and London, 1945, p. 4

satisfactory cooperative working situations. "The warm, personal, satisfying human relationships that develop when men join together in groups have the power to change the spirit and form of the artificial up–down–system that makes so many of our institutions so formal and verbal."[1] Organization, association, adaptation and adjustment are the essential tools and techniques as well as the process of social integration and advancement. A full grasp of the dynamics of these processes and an ability to use them are essential particularly in a teacher, who by his position and profession shoulders special social responsibilities.

The need for social ability in teachers to work cooperatively with others also arises out of the very fact that education is essentially a human enterprise. It is concerned with human beings and their development. All its successful working situations are of associational character–teacher and pupils working together, members of the staff working together, school and administrators working together, and school and community working together. The process of education is obviously an organismic process, the success of which definitely depends upon the quality of cooperation and participation on the part of each individual–the quality of human relations and degree of cooperation among them all. Since the teacher is the central person in educational organization and works with children, with his colleagues in the faculty, with the principal and other administrators, and with the parents and the community, he needs greater skill in adaptation to differing personalities. Since his individual and group behaviour may improve human relations which in turn will improve the quality of educational outcomes, he should have the social ability:

- to promote consciously friendly acquaintance and mutual understanding;
- to promote participation in planning and carrying out plans;
- to promote and develop community understanding, interests and purposes;

[1]**Ibid.,** p. 17

- to recognize the uniqueness and potential worth of each individual;
- to strive to be a good social person himself and adjust self-behavior in terms of integrity, honesty and vital group decisions;
- to understand the nature of institutional objectives; and
- to evaluate the outcome of satisfactory human relations.[1]

Closely related to the ability to generate and maintain good human relations is the active role of leadership for which a teacher or administrator must be prepared in view of his significant work with the community. Basically it needs a keen social ability to know to work with-others. According to Tead, "Leadership is the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they come to find desirable". However, says he, "the leader is no longer to be looked upon as a unique individual set apart from humanity by unusual personal qualities. The leader in one organization is often the follower in another. Most of us are normally followers in many activities."[2] In order to prepare successful leaders both adequate and appropriate training of the teachers is essential to help them build up **some of the_** essential qualities of leadership, e.g.,[3]

vitality and endurance,
decisiveness,
persuasiveness,
responsibility,
intellectual capacity,
sensitivity to purpose and direction,
working according to the impersonal authority of the situation.

[1]The ideas are adapted from the notes on class lecture of Dr. Karl W. Bigelow, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

[2]Tead, Ordway; The Art of Leadership, McGraw-Hill, New York, pp. 10 and 20.

[3]Adapted from the notes on class lectures of Dr. Karl W.Bigelow professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

On an effective social participation and social leadership on the part of the faculty and on the quality of human relations existing in an educational institution depends upon the effectiveness of the entire educational program. It is essential for the production of good teachers that the teacher training institutions should be particularly sensitive to the importance of human relations. According to the survey of the **Commission on Teacher Education** in America:

> **The experience demonstrated the critical importance of human relations and of ways of working together if genuine progress is to be made in the improvement of teacher education. The problems that can be dealt with adequately by single individual are new and relatively subsidiary. A meeting of minds and a dovetailing of efforts are usually essential.**[1]

In Pakistan, teachers will be mainly concerned with educational change, which could be accomplished through working with people in order to prepare and influence them to accept the change. For developing the educational objectives of 'social competency' (Chapter V) among the youth the teachers themselves should have social ability and insight into social problems. Moreover, the need for improving human relations in our educational institutions is most crucial. Thus far little attention has been given to human relations since everything is accepted 'by orders.' Often the role of human relations is taken for granted. It is essential that the prospective teachers should be helped to develop a keen sense of human relations and social ability to work cooperatively with others. For it is this **ability to work satisfactorily with others** which is basic for social integration, good human relations and successful performance of the tasks of leadership. Specifically, it is proposed that:

a. the teachers under training should be given courses in the dynamics of group work, social participation, human relations and tasks of leadership;

[1]Commission on Teacher Education: The Improvement of Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1946, p. 52.

b. they should be given greatest possible opportunities for group work and participation in different activities.
c. each student teacher should carry out a work project in the community; and
d. the training institution in itself should be an example of good human relations.

5. The whole program of preparation should be adjusted to the needs and capacities of each individual teacher, to the specific type of work for which he is preparing and to the teaching situation in which he is likely to be placed.

This is the most important single principle, on which will depend the satisfaction and success of the individual prospective teacher in his professional preparation and consequently the success of any training program. It needs urgent recognition and implementation in our training institutions where the rigid and uniform curriculum has little provision for individual needs. The new teacher training programs must be based on the principles of individual needs and differences among the student teachers. This principle calls for the **adjustment** of the whole **program** to (1) individual needs and capabilities (ii) to the specific type of work, and (iii) to the teaching situations.

Adjustments to individual needs

Basically the prospective teacher is selected, trained and employed as an individual. Professional adjustments to individual needs are essential during the whole process of recruitment, selection, training and employment because professional attitudes are built from the time when an individual begins to make his vocational choice. In order to improve the whole process of teacher education:

> **First there is the need for attracting to the profession young men and women with promise of success, and for guiding into other vocations those would-be teachers who lack such promise. Then there is the necessity of developing the best possible programs for pre–service education. Comes next the responsibility**

of helping beginning teachers to find berths suited to their interests and competence, and of assisting them to make a good and satisfying adjustment during their novitiate. This responsibility concerns both the institut-ions, in which the teachers have been prepared and also the school system in which they are beginning their work.

But teacher education is not something that can be considered completed even after a young teacher is off to a good start. The social changes and educational discoveries that mark our times demand that teachers in service should not stand still .... It follows that school systems utilizing the help of institutions of higher learning, state departments of education, and other resources, need to provide teachers with working conditions that will enable them constantly to engage in activities that make for personal and professional development.[1]

So far, little attention has been given to the problem of recruitment and selection of prospective teachers by the Education Department, with the result that at present, there are hundreds of teachers who should not have been in the teaching profession. Lack of individual guidance during the period of professional preparation creates problems of personal adjustment and the prospective teacher does not benefit from the training to the extent that he should have normally done. Without proper placement in the right type of position there results individual failure, which affects teaching efficiency adversely. The following specific proposals are, therefore, offered to cover up these inadequacies and to increase the professional competence of the individual who chooses teaching as his profession.

[1]Commission on Teacher Education: The Improvement of Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1946, pp. 247 – 48.

I. Selection and Recruitment[1]

Admission to teaching profession must rest on a careful program of recruitment and selection.

a. Recruitment should start in the schools with the cooperation of the school authorities or in the colleges in cooperation with the college authorities. For effective recruitment the Education Departments should make provision for professional orientation either through printed material or through the extension lectures delivered by members of the training college faculty.

b. Selection should not rest on scholastic achievement (degrees or certificates) alone but on the fitness of the individual as a whole. This should be judged on the basis of past school records, official recommendations and personal interviews. A health certificate must be essential. Health, personality, speech, social and scholastic ability, and emotional stability should be the main qualities sought for in the recruit. Evaluation of the person as a whole should be the main basis of selection.

c. The selection should be organized at the end of the school or college year at convenient centers. There should be at least one such center in each district for the selection of primary teachers.

II. Preliminary Professional Orientation

Under the present system, individuals are accepted as teachers on the basis of their academic qualifications and they are directly placed in the schools without any profess-ional preparation. It is after some period of service that they are selected for admission to the training schools and colleges. This

[1]On the problems of recruitment and selection, guidance, placement, and follow – up services, the viewpoints expressed by the Committee on Standards and Surveys of the American Association of Teachers Colleges in the Twenty – Sixth Yearbook of the Association (1947) and in the brochure: "Minimum Standards for Accrediting Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools" reprinted from the Twenty – Sixth Yearbook and revised in February 1947, form the basis for the author's proposals in the following pages.

practice has the advantage as the service experience can contribute to the effectiveness of the training imparted. But at the same time, there is the obvious disadvantage of entrusting teaching work to individuals who do not know anything about some of the basic requirements of the teaching profession. The harm becomes most serious when due to limited training facilities, many teachers do not get the opportunity of training at all while many of the others get the chance of selection after some years of service. Thus, almost every individual who gets the teacher's job is engaged in a kind of wasteful teaching for a considerable period because he has neither the knowledge of human growth and development nor does he understand the basic concepts underlying the teaching and learning processes

It is essential that under the national system of education no one should be allowed to teach without a minimum knowledge and understanding of the professional tasks involved in teaching. Under the present circumstances, when on the one hand, the facilities for training are limited, while on the other hand, thousands of teachers are to be prepared to implement the schemes of free and compulsory primary education, it may not be either possible or practicable to require a considerable amount of professional preparation as a condition to appointment as a teacher. Moreover, pre–service professional preparation without any service experience may contribute more to academic efficiency than to professional competence. The present practice, under which the professional preparation comes after some period of actual service experience is desirable provided its present defect is eliminated by means of a sound professional orientation which should precede the preliminary placement of an individual as a teacher.

The kind and amount of professional orientation preceding the preliminary placement should be determined by the Education Department in each province. However, it must be adjusted to the needs of the individual and to local requirements. The following proposals are offered to make a beginning in this direction:

a. No individual selected for teaching should be placed in the school unless he has received an intensive professional orientation of at least two months. This preparation should include course of general professional orientation with particular emphasis on knowledge of human growth and development, knowledge of the learning process and knowledge of class organization and management.
b. To the primary teachers, this course should be given at convenient centers in each district by qualified teachers specially selected from the local high schools. To the secondary teachers this course should be given preferably by the members of the training college faculty.
c. The newly selected teachers should be appointed on probation for six months. During this period they should be placed under the guidance and supervision of senior teachers who should be specially selected for this purpose. The fresh teachers should be placed only in those schools where competent teacher is available for this kind of supervision.
d. Admission to a training institution for full professional preparation must be preceded by at least one year of teaching experience.

III. Guidance during professional preparation

Educational guidance in a training institution should aim at assisting each individual student teacher in formulating a professional program adjusted to his needs and capacities which is **expected to result in his best possible professional and personal development.**[1] The first step towards the implemen-tation of guidance programs in our training institutions, therefore, is to differentiate the present rigid and uniform professional curriculum in order to provide for individual needs and differences. The varied curriculum should further provide for a minimum number of courses as electives distributed in all major and minor areas for the individual choice of a student teacher. Secondly, the training institutions should provide for

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[1]After the **meaning** and **function** of "Guidance" as set fo. by the Committee on Standards and Surveys of the American Association of Teachers Colleges in their brochure: "Minimum Standard for Accrediting Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools" reprinted from the Twenty – Sixth Yearbook of the Association, and revised in February, 1947.

guidance to each individual student teacher both in personal and professional problems. Our training institutions are generally located in urban areas while a majority of student teachers often come from rural areas with varied social, economic and environmental backgrounds. The varied individual backgrounds call for an effective guidance service to help the individuals to make satisfactory personal adjustments.

Although each institution must device its own guidance program suited to the needs of its clientele, the following specific proposals should be found acceptable for an adequate guidance program in any training institution:

(1) Each training institution should introduce guidance service as an integral part of its program.

(2) Each fresh class of student teachers should be given an orientation during the first week which should acquaint them with the general purpose and program of the training institution; the facilities provided for study, use of library, health, recreation and personal guidance; the living facilities in the hostels; and a general acquaintance with the whole town or city life and the surrounding environment.

(3) At least one member of the faculty should be specially appointed as the general advisor to all the students in their personal and educational problems.

(4. Each individual student teacher should have a special advisor to guide him in his own field of professional preparation.

(5) The student teacher should be free to choose or change his advisor if he so desires.

(6) Personal guidance service for the individual student teachers should be of a positive character. It should not be limited to helping the individual in his personal problems whenever they arise, but it should positively remedy his weaknesses and promote his achievements.

(7) Personal guidance should particularly enable the individual to participate satisfactorily in group activities in the college and in the hostels.

(8) An adequate record system should be maintained for the integration and evaluation of the individual's whole program.

(9) Professional achievement of the student teacher should be evaluated in terms of his whole growth as an individual.

IV. Placement after professional preparation

So far, the importance of proper placement has hardly been realized in any branch of public service. It is important to understand, however, that in the final analysis the whole national efficiency depends upon the work of each citizen in the right type of position. Placement service aims at helping the individual on the basis of his choice and capabilities, to work in a type of position which affords opportunities for self–development and where he can make the greatest possible contribution to the society.

In our system of public education the responsibility for proper placement of teachers rests with the Department of Education and the local authorities. This, however, does not absolve the training institutions from their share of responsibility in the placement and follow–up services to the individual teachers whom they have prepared for a better professional work. The following proposals should be helpful to our training institutions in organizing their own placement service:

a. The training institutions maintain a complete record of each individual teacher which should include information about his previous position and nature of personal and professional adjustments in terms of transfer, success and failure in that position(s).

b. The training institutions should not remain isolated as they have been thus far, but be closely associated with the school system. They should have adequate knowledge of needs for service of teachers in terms of the type of work in particular service areas.

c. They should coordinate their placement programs with the Education Departments and the local school authorities in each province. For this purpose:

   i. they should have information in advance about the future placement of each trained teacher as considered by the Departments of the private school authorities;

ii. they should recommend necessary adjustments on the basis of the needs of the individual, evaluation of his professional work, the type of service he is to render, and the requirements of the service area;

iii. this adjustment should be proposed to the Education Department or to the private school authorities in a detailed letter of recommendation and also through conferences with the Depart-mental supervisors who work with the training institutions.

d. Placement service should be a specific function which should be entrusted to a single member of the faculty, or to a faculty committee or to a particular department, preferably to the department of educational administration.

V. Follow–up Service

Follow–up service is an integral part of placement service. Without adequate follow–up service, the placement service remains incomplete. The follow–up program enables the individual teacher to make satisfactory re-adjustments on the job which will contribute to his professional satisfaction and in turn to the teaching efficiency of the particular school in which he serves and to that of the whole teaching profession. By helping the individual teacher in his readjustments on the job the training institutions will keep in touch with their numerous alumni teachers and, in trying to solve their professional problems, they will be solving many problems of the whole system. Moreover, the knowledge of the personal and professional problems of the teachers in service would also help each institution to make continuous improvements in its own training program.

For the provision of an adequate follow–up service the following specific proposals should be helpful to each teacher training institution to organize its own follow–up program in terms of its own needs of its individual teachers as well as the whole body of alumni:

a. Follow–up service should be organized by each teacher training institution in close coordination with the department of Education and the local school authorities both private and public.

b. Its main objectives should be professional adjustments of the teachers in service whom the institution has trained for the purpose of their in–service professional growth, for the efficiency of the whole school system and the whole teaching profession, and for continuous improvement in the education program of the institution itself.

c. The follow–up program must be an integral part of the placement service and both should be in charge of the same authority of the institution.

d. For the purpose of professional growth and adjustment of each individual teacher:

i. Provision should be made, as an integral part of the curriculum, to discuss with the outgoing class of senior student teachers during the last week of their work, the plans and possibilities of future contacts with them through correspondence, individual conferences, or the meeting of the alumni association. It should be emphatically conveyed to them in what specific ways the institution can help them. The professional advantages of whole follow–up program should be particularly stressed.

ii. A precise summary of the record of each out–going student teacher and his future address and change in the address should form a part of the permanent records of the training institution.

iii. The placement office should handle the future correspondence of each individual. Problems emerging out of the placement and the follow–up programs should be worked out with the departmental supervisors assigned to the training institutions.

iv. Each training institution should as far as possible organize its alumni association which should have a permanent office on the campus and should organize annual meetings or other activities on the campus. This association, apart from its main social

significance, should also be an important resource for the in–service education of teachers and for the improvement of the whole school system in general, and the teaching profession in particular.

v. On the occasions of the meetings of the alumni body and during the school vacations, the training institutions should arrange seminar discussions on leading educational problems.

e. Significant professional problems emerging out of the whole work related to the placement and follow–up services and to the alumni associations and the seminar discussions should be detailed in an annual report to be reviewed by the committee of the whole faculty.

f. On the basis of this report and on every other resource that the institution has, an annual report should be made to the Department of Education and the local authorities, incorporating suggestions for the improvement of practices concerning placement, transfers, school curricula, and the whole school administration.

g. In the light of this whole experience the educational program of the training institutions should be revised yearly in order to improve the quality of the professional work of each individual student teacher in relation to the newly identified problems which he will face in the teaching situation.

B. Adjustment of preparation to the specific type of work and the teaching situation:

Thus far, the discussion has centered on the adjustment of teacher preparation to **individual needs and capabilities** of the prospective teachers. Five areas of recruitment and selection, preliminary placement, guidance service in the training institutions, the placement service, and the final follow–up service were discussed and relevant proposals offered in each area. The second part of the same principle (No.5) postulates that the preparation of the prospective teacher should be adjusted to **the specific type of work** for which he will be employed in the school system and

to **the teaching situation** in which he will be placed. In other words, if a training institution prepares primary teachers they should be trained in accordance with their work either in rural or urban areas. Again, the teaching situations in the rural environment will vary both in terms of the regional needs and the needs of the local community.

(i) Adjustment to teaching situation in various service areas

The need for this kind of adjustment is particularly greater in Pakistan where the social, cultural and economic patterns even in the same province have not been levelled to any general standards or norms as is generally the case in some highly industrialized societies where the network of communications, newspapers and radio have given a kind of general pattern to each regional variety. For instance, in Bengal the teaching situation in the schools located in the jute–producing areas may be different from those in the tea–producing areas. In Punjab, the rural teachers needed for the schools for the Punjabi–speaking population may not be suitable for the schools either in the Baluchi–speaking population or in the Multani–speaking population. In Sindh, the rural teachers needed for schools in the Tharparkar district will not fit equally well into the schools of Larkana district due to different socio–physical environments. Thus, there are distinct regional varieties in each province because of differences in linguistic, agricultural and physical environment. For the purpose of greater professional competency they call for adjustments in the preparation of prospective teachers in terms of particular teaching situations and community patterns in different service areas.

Under the present conditions each province has only a few training institutions, some only one, in which the teachers from all parts of the province go through one and the same kind of rigid and narrow curriculum. For the purposes of reorganization it is proposed that:

a. the teacher training institutions should be localized as far as possible in the representative local and regional areas to meet the peculiar needs of the local environment. It has been seen in Chapter IV that this

basic need was stressed by the Indian Education Commission in 1882;

b. since the teaching situations are broadly either urban or rural in character, the preparation of prospective teachers must be adjusted to these two most representative environments;
c. as far as possible teachers for urban areas should be recruited from such areas;
d. teachers for rural areas must be recruited form rural areas;
e. for the preparation of primary teachers in each province, each district should have its own training institution(s) situated in a representative **local environment.** This is essential not only to meet the needs of the **local environment,** but also for the preparation of any army of primary teachers to carry out the scheme of universal, free and compulsory primary education. To start with, there should be at least one institution in each district.
f. for the preparation of secondary teachers in each province, each regional area[1] should have its own training institution(s). To start with, there should be at least one institution in each regional area.

(ii). Adjustment of preparation to specific type of work:

The professional preparation of the prospective teachers must necessarily be adjusted to the specific type of work in which each prospective teacher will be engaged. This adjustment will necessarily operate in the designing of the curricula.

The present institutions follow this principle to the extent that they train each teacher in the special subject which he is expected to teach in the secondary schools. In the new system of national education a variety of teachers will be needed to do different types of professional work. In order to

[1]The broad sense in which the term **local** and **regional** have been used here is this: the frame of reference for the **local areas** is the similarity in communities in an area, while the **regional areas** refer to the homogeneity of physical and occupational environment. Thus, there may be one or more local areas in a regional area. It is up to each province to determine such areas and to organize school circles for the purpose of consolidating the rural schools and organizing the training institutions.

meet the needs of the new schools under the national system of education each province will need:

- *primary teachers for rural schools*
- *primary teachers for urban schools*
- *secondary teachers for urban schools*
- *secondary teachers for rural schools*
- *teachers for religious instruction*
- *teacher of fine arts, industrial arts, natural sciences, social sciences, languages and other areas of studies*
- *teachers for girls schools*[1]
- *teachers for adult education*
- *teachers as counselors in educational and vocational guidance programs*
- *teachers skilled in the techniques of measurement and evaluation*
- *teachers skilled in designing curricula*
- *teachers specializing in the field of audio–visual aids to instruction*
- *teachers for health education*
- *teachers for nursing education*
- *teachers for the education of the handicapped*
- *administrator supervisors and school inspectors*

This distinct variety of types of positions shows that the professional preparation of each individual must necessarily be organized around the needs and requirements of the specific type of service in which he or she is expected to be placed.

Clearly, every training institution in each province is not expected to provide facilities for professional preparation in every type of work or position. The scope of the professional curriculum in each institution must primarily depend upon its own basic needs and purposes. A training institution prepari-

[1]Throughout this chapter no mention has been made of "women" teachers on the basic conviction that there will be no distinction between men and women teachers in the national school system. The principle of adjusting the professional preparation to individual needs postulates that the needs of women teachers as such will be met. Here the reference signifies the importance of female education and its particular needs and problems at the present time for which teachers, both men and women, must be especially trained.

ing only the primary teachers for a local area will have the kind of curriculum suited to this specific need. The following proposals are offered for the organization of the professional curriculum in a typical training institution in each province:

a. The representatives of the training institutions and the Department of Education should jointly determine in the light of existing experience the amount of professional preparation for each type of position.
b. They should jointly determine in the light of existing experience the kind of abilities, understandings, skills, and knowledge needed for each type of position.
c. Each institution must be free in designing, developing, and modifying its own curriculum in terms of its own needs and resources.
d. The Education Department should assist the training institutions in developing the instructional material and also provide additional instructional material prepared by their Department's bureau of educational research. But the institution must be free to choose and use the instructional material in terms of its own needs.
e. In the curriculum of any training institution of average size that prepares either primary or secondary classroom teachers, the following features will be almost indispensable.
   (i) A foundational course or group of courses which will be the central–study–program for all the prospective teachers. This foundational program will, in accordance with the basic principle (d) aim at the personal development, professional competence and social ability of each prospective teacher. The earlier discussion of personal development and social ability indicates that each student teacher will have to be given a sound general education and an adequate preparation in group work, participation, human relations and leadership. This will be one essential part of the foundational program. The discussion of professional preparation indicates that each prospective teacher will be given a distinctly professional

preparation. This will be the second part of this foundational program. Each training institution will decide in terms of its own needs and problems and in terms of the needs of its clientele, in what way, how much, and what basic elements from each part should compose the foundational program for each and all of the student teachers.

   ii. A group of courses which are centered on the specific type of work for which the individual student teacher is preparing. This will be his field of specialization. Though a major part of this study will be prescribed by the very nature of specialization, an individual should be given some choice(the scope of which will depend upon the scope of the whole curriculum) to elect such few courses as will supplement and strengthen this special study.

   iii. In the early discussion in this and the previous chapter, it has been emphasized that each class teacher should be able to give guidance service to each individual pupil of his class and also should be able to measure and evaluate the achievements of each pupil of his class. A functional knowledge of educational and vocational guidance and measurement must necessarily be essential part of the new teacher's professional equipment. Therefore, the curriculum of every institution that is concerned with the preparation of either primary or secondary teachers must provide for appropriate courses in the field of guidance and measurement. This should be the general field of study of every prospective teacher. In this field student teacher should have comparatively greater choice of courses than in his special field.

f. Under (e), the basic proposals have been made on the assumption that the training institution is of just the average size that the nation will need in large numbers, and that it prepares not the specialists but the classroom

teachers for the nation's primary and secondary schools. However, each province in Pakistan will need all kinds of teachers for a variety of positions, many specialists, and a number of administrators and school supervisors who may be professionally trained. Therefore, it is necessary that each province should have at least one representative school of education which should provide for specialized training for each type of position. Such an institution is also essential to provide full opportunities for graduate and post-graduate work in each major field of professional work.

With these proposals may be concluded the analysis and discussion of the last principle (No.3), which stipulates that the whole preparation of teachers should be adjusted to the needs and capabilities of the individual student teachers, to the specific type of work in which they will be engaged, and to the teaching situations in which they are likely to be placed. It must be finally stressed that this is an important operational principle, on the satisfactory working of which will depend the quality of the educative process and the quality of teachers prepared.

VI. In-Service Education of Teachers

The education of teachers is not completed with the completion of training courses. Teachers are not prepared once and for all. As members of the profession, they must necessarily be always making preparation, growing as individualls, as teachers, and as citizens. Since education is a continuous process, every teacher must engage in some type of activity conducive to his growth as a whole.

The need for an organized program of education of teachers in service is recognized in all advanced school systems. Unless continuous opportunities are given to teachers in service, whereby they get acquainted with the latest trends and developments in the field of education in general and in their own field of education in particular, they will be doing the same kind of teaching with which they were made familiar years ago. This is generally the situation in our present school system. Unless teachers continue to grow on the job, the quality of professional preparation in itself will hardly enable

them to bring about progressive changes in their teaching and administrative work. One of the reasons why the educational progress has been slow so far, is this lack of professional growth on the part of teachers and school administrators.

Besides contributing to the continued efficiency of the whole teaching profession, in-service project can be used to cover up some particular shortage areas. Under the present conditions, programs of in-service education are needed in each province of Pakistan to improve teaching in the private community schools, to develop and improve the condition of rural schools, and to enable the majority of untrained teachers, particularly in the primary schools, to gain minimum professional understanding of the school work in which they are engaged. Regular on-campus and off-campus activities, community projects, extension lecturers visitation programs, Saturday classes, joint-school studies, inter-institutional programs, professional conferences, and vocation courses are the various in-service educational tools to be used by the training institutions, high schools and the groups of local primary schools, either individually or jointly, for the education of their staff groups.

> The context for any in-service project should be a continuous program of professional education on the job, combining voluntary study groups during the school year and summer workshops conducted by the school system. Such a program tends to develop the necessary group solidarity and professional spirit throughout the school system, as well as to permit flexibility in developing and maintaining the desirable range of activities. It also tends to ensure maximum use of the capabilities and resources of the entire school staff.[1]

(a) Responsibility of the training schools and colleges

In the first place the in-service program should be characteristic of a strong professional teachers' training school or college adequately serving the profession of teaching and

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[1]Commission on Teacher Education: Helping Teachers Understand Children, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1945, p. 466.

helping the profession to assume appropriate stature. Responsibility for initiative and voluntary leadership to serve the needs of the teaching profession through in–service programmes must rest with the training institutions. As already explained, some significant in–service activities will be an integral part of the placement and follow–up services. Besides, each training institution can further develop its in–service programs through studies of local city schools or the rural schools of the local areas. The training institutions situated in provincial capitals or other central places can secure the cooperation of other institutions of higher education and develop in–service activities through visitation programs, extension lectures and professional conferences. In–service educational programs could be developed conveniently during the vacations through professional seminars and short vacation courses. The professional information could be disseminated among the larger number of teachers through professional publications.

(b) **Responsibility of the Education Departments**

The Departments of Education in each province have a special responsibility for the in–service education of teachers. The Departments of Education are in a better position to coordinate the efforts of high schools and primary schools in each division, district, or in the whole province for the purpose of professional conferences and cooperative studies. According to the experience of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education:

> State department of education–and specially State directors of teachers education and certification–have special opportunities available to them for the exercise of leadership in cooperative studies in the field of teacher education. Experience shows that work of this character yields more satisfaction and brings more results than specialization in the issuance of regulations, the saying of yea and nay, and in supervising a system of records. Extension of leadership of this character is more desirable.[1]

[1]Commission on Teacher Education; The Improvement of Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1946., p. 239.

Specifically, the following measures need to be adopted by the Education Departments for the in–service education of primary and secondary teachers:

1. The Education Departments should designate a permanent administrative staff to devise and direct the in–service educational programs in the province. In the long run the in–service programs may be directed by the division on teacher education and other administrative divisions of the Education Departments. However, until the Education Departments are reorganized, a special staff on in–service education is most urgently needed to organize in–service projects for the benefit of a large number of untrained teachers. Through this staff the Departments can provide educational leadership needed for the organization and coordination of in–service activities in primary schools and high schools. The primary schools and high schools should be **selected** for participation in the various in–service projects.
2. The Education Departments should seek the cooperation of institutions of higher education in general and the training schools and colleges in particular, in planning profitable professional experiences for the teachers in service.
3. Facilities should be provided for all those teachers in service who wish to improve their general and professional education by attending colleges or otherwise.
4. Regular vocation courses should be organized at each district center and certificates should be issued to teachers who attend a fixed number of these vocation courses.
5. Professional conferences, seminars and discussions should be organized in each local and regional area to enable every teacher to participate.
6. All teachers in service should be reached through regular professional publications–magazines and journals, issued by the Education Departments.

(c) **Responsibility of voluntary professional associations**

In 1926, the Committee on University Reform appointed by the Government of Bombay observed as follows:

A feature of education in India is the lack of organization among the teachers. It is symptomatic of the want of vocational enthusiasm ...and it is responsible to a large extent for the apparent powerlessness of the teacher to improve his status and prospects. With organization would come increased opportunities for individual work, intellectual stimulus, professional interest, added power, all that gives life and value to work. The University should encourage the formation of Associations of Head Masters and Mistresses, and of Assistant Teachers and offer facilities for their educational activities. Vocation conferences in the University buildings would bring the **mofussil** (distant) schools into direct touch with the University. The University teaching staff should give a lead in organizing discussions, regarding papers, lectures, study circles etc. Above all the University should encourage the creation of Provident Fund for teachers in connection with every recognized high school and might well declare the existence of such a Fund an essential part of the organization of every school which seeks recognition.[1]

During the last twenty–five years a few professional organizations have come into existence but due to the lack of competent professional leadership they are still weak and their professional influence almost negligible. In the above statement, the organization and in–service education of high school teachers were suggested under the leadership of the University. At the present stage, however, strong profess-ional organizations of all teachers–primary, secondary, college and university as well as of the school administrators are needed for the strength and influence of the teaching profession. Moreover, it is expected that with the abolition of the Matriculation Examination the school systems will become fully independent of the universities. Although voluntary leadership of the universities' staff is indispensable for the organization of the teaching profession, responsibility for educational leadership at the present stage rests more with the

[1]Report of the Committee on University Reform, Appointed by Government 1924 – 25, First Edition, Bombay, 1926, pp. 127 – 28.

provincial Departments of Education than with the universities. The Education Departments, therefore, should actively promote the growth of the professional associations and organizations which can play an important role in the advancement of national education in general and the education of the teachers in particular.

The responsibility for organizing the teaching profession rests with the teachers themselves. The professional prestige and the advancement depend upon existence of strong professional associations both at the local and the national levels which work for improving the level of education as well as the service conditions of teachers. Unless the teachers have an interest in their own professional growth and advancement, official efforts of the Education Departments alone can hardly accomplish anything substantial for them.

The initiative for in–service professional growth, in particular, must rest with the teaching profession. As observed by the Commission on Teacher Education: "The teachers' own interest in continuous growth is recognized and given scope, and in–service education is less and less thought of as something that is done to teachers."[1] While the Departments of Education must provide the necessary leadership and opportunities for professional growth, the demand for such assistance must arise out of the activities and enthusiasm of the voluntary professional organizations.

> **In the local education association is found the growing edge of the organized teaching profession. The face-to-face human relationships that are the basis for immediate action programs by local associations are in sum total the organized problems of teaching profession, on which State (provincial) and national associati-ons base their programs.[2]**

[1]Commission on Teacher Education: Teachers for Our Times, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1944, p. 19.

[2]National Education Association: Local Education Association at work, **Research Bulletin,** Vol. xxvi, No.3, October 1948, N.E.A, Washington, D.C., Foreword.

It is essential that the teachers and school administrators in Pakistan organize strong provincial and national associations for the advancement of national education in general and the teaching profession in particular. The following observations from the foreword to the Research Bulletin of the National Education Associations of the United States prepared through the cooperation of "more than a thousand local education associations" should serve as a guide for the organization and activities of the local, provincial and national associations:

> Policies that govern State (equivalent to provincial) and national education organizations, if they are to meet the needs of the entire profession, must grow out of the experience and the thinking of members and leaders of the local groups. Likewise the leadership of state and national associations must in large part be made up of those members who have found local opportunities to demonstrate vision and courage in posts of responsibility.
>
> A local education association for teachers should be a professional workshop where teachers find tools and lay out the jobs that they can accomplish only by united effort. Like any good workshop, everybody in it has to be busy if the tasks are to be accomplished. A constructive action program by a local education association gives many different individuals opportunity for creative service at important work. Imagination and social inventiveness find an outlet in developing unique procedures for meeting unique local needs. Working together means comradeship and the strengthening of courage and zest for faithful service to childhood and youth everywhere.....[1]

[1]Loc.cit.,

Chapter VII

THE IMMEDIATE NEXT STEPS

The first four chapters provide a background for the educational change that is needed at present in Pakistan. In Chapter V, an attempt has been made to show the direction of this educational change for the purpose of reconstructing a national system of education. In particular, the attention has been centered on describing the process of reconstructing a truly national system of education. Similarly, while offering proposals for the reconstruction of teacher education, in Chapter VI, an attempt is made primarily to indicate the process of improving the quality of teacher education.

Without qualitative change in the policies, procedures, and practices of the present system of education, a truly national system of education can hardly be evolved. Therefore, the "directional goals" for a qualitative change in the educational system in general and in the field of teacher education in particular, have been indicated in the last two chapters. Some immediate steps, however , need to be taken in order to move forward in the direction of the new educational reconstruction.

These immediate "next steps" for bringing about the essential changes are needed **simultaneously** in the administrative system, in the programs of instruction in the schools, and in the programs of teacher education. The quality of education in the schools cannot be improved without improving the quality of both the education of teachers and the school administration. Similarly, improvements in the educa-

tion of teachers will largely depend upon the improvements made in the administrative policies and procedures. Again, since the teachers eventually occupy the administrative posts, the quality of administration does, in a large measure, depend upon the quality of teacher education. The progress of these various branches of educational system being independent, the improvements in any one of them must necessarily call for corresponding improvements in the others. In order to improve the education of teachers, therefore, changes must necessarily be effected in the administrative policies and procedures affecting the schools and the teachers training institutions.

The analysis of the problems of the present educational system in Chapters III and IV points out the need for some important educational changes in order to remedy some of the existing defects.[1] In order to begin the task of educational reconstruction, the following steps seem to be most essential in the field of school administration:-

1. **Reorganization of the Education Departments**: Thus far, the Education Departments in the province have been mainly concerned with the problems of personnel administration. Even the school inspection has been more a part of the personnel administration than a specialized educational function. Since the personnel administration engaged the predominant attention of the Departments, the strictly educational problems receive comparatively less or little attention.

A reorganization of the Education Departments is essential in order to meet the ever–increasing needs of the school system and solve its present problems. This reorganization must be effected in accordance with the educational needs and problems in each province. However, it seems desirable at the present stage that a provincial Educa-tion Department ought to be organized at least under six different divisions: the Primary Education and Supervision, the Secondary Education and Supervision, the Teacher Education, the Vocational Guidance and Education, the Preparation of Instructional Material and Educational Research, and the Personnel Administration. Each ivision should be put under the charge of an educator who is a specialist in the field. The heads of these divisions may be

[1]See the Summaries of Chapter III and IV.

designated as "Directors" e.g., the Director of Primary Education and Supervision, the Director of Vocational Guidance and Education, etc., and they should all be under the Director of Public Instruction (for whole province). The Division on the Preparation of Instructional Material and Educational Research is urgently needed to prepare a variety of instructional materials, construct various standardized tests which may replace the present defective system of examinations, and carry on various studies and surveys. Only through such functional divisions, which are adequately staffed by specialists, can the Departments of Education provide that effective educational leadership, which is urgently needed for the new educational reconstruction.

2. **Professional Preparation of the Administrators:** It needs to be recognized that educational administration is a specialized function; steps, therefore, should be taken for the professional preparation of the prospective administrators, particularly the school supervisors. For this purpose, courses in educational administration and supervision should be immediately introduced in the secondary teachers training colleges.

3. **Differentiating the School Curriculum:** There is an urgent need for differentiating the curriculum of secondary schools in order to suit the needs, interests and abilities of the individual pupils. Moreover, it needs to be enriched by means of vocational courses in order to prepare the youth for the business of living.

4. **Freedom in Designing Curriculum:** The schools must be free to design the curriculum and use the instructional material suitable to the needs of various grades. The designing of curriculum and the choice of books, however, should be the joint responsibility of the staff of each school.

5. **Replacing the Matriculation Examination:** The Matriculation examination should be replaced by High Schools Certificate to be awarded by the Departments of Education on the recommendation of the high school authorities. The Depart-ments may prescribe the minimum course requirements and indicate the abilities, skills and understandings which each pupil may be expected to develop at the completion of high school education. The high school authorities should recommend a pupil for the award of High School Certificate on the basis of his personal record, satisfactory completion of the

required number of courses, performance on the standardized ability and achievement tests, and on any other criteria set jointly by the high schools and the Department of Education.

The High School Certificate should qualify a student for admission to college and also for government service. So far as admission to a college is concerned, the college authorities may satisfy themselves, if they so desire, by examining the **ability** and **achievement** of individual pupils in terms of the academic and other requirements of the college.

6. **Having an Organized Program of Teacher Education:** So far, there has been no organized program of teacher education in any province. Since thousands of teachers are needed to achieve the objective of compulsory primary education, each province must formulate a well–organized program of educating the requisite number of teachers in the province. An organized plan to be executed over a given period of time will be more economical and efficient than the sporadic attempts to open the training schools and colleges here and there. Although the Central Advisory Board's "Report on Post–War Educational Plan" may be helpful in estimating the number of teachers to be trained, the cost involved, and the time to be taken, the situation has changed after the national independence calling for new plans for teacher education in each province.

7. **Increasing the Professional Rewards:** In order to impart the kind of education proposed in the last chapter, the prospective teachers for the schools of the nation will have to be specially recruited and carefully selected. By consensus of opinion the salary–scales of our teachers have been miserably low and, therefore, have failed to attract intelligent young men and women to the teaching profession. Unless the professional rewards for teachers are increased, our schools will never have competent teachers. Specifically:

a. Teachers should get reasonably higher salary scales, permanent tenure, and retirement benefits;

b. They should be entitled to full freedom in research and publication of results, subject to the performance of their other duties efficiently;

c. They should have full freedom in teaching and discussing their subjects, designing or modifying the curriculum, evaluating the instruction; and

d. They should be given an opportunity to share in the formulation of administrative policies and programs.

8. **Raising the Level of Education and the Status of Primary Teachers:** In the scheme of national education, primary education must be an important stage of education. It is essential, therefore, to center greater attention on the preparation of primary teachers. Gradually, the existing disparity between the primary and secondary teachers must be abolished. In order to raise the status of primary teachers it is essential that the level of their academic and professional education as well as their salary scales should be substantially raised.

9. **Freedom to Design the Curriculum:** The responsibility for designing the curricula in the training schools and colleges should rest with the faculties of each institution. The University control of the curricula in the secondary teachers training colleges, therefore, should be discontinued. The training institutions should be free to formulate training programs to suit the needs of the student teachers as well as the needs of the school systems. Since the Education Departments are concerned with the improvement of the school system, there should be a closer coordination between the Departments and the training institutions regarding the selection, preparation, and placement of prospective teachers.

10. **Abolition of the External Examinations:** The external examinations at the completion of the training programs must be replaced with the final certification by the authorities of each training institution. This certification should be based on the satisfactory completion of the course require-ments. In the case of secondary teachers colleges, the degree of B.T. should be awarded by the Universities on the basis of this final certification and recommendation by the college authorities. In the case of training schools and colleges for primary teachers the final certificates should be awarded by the Education Departments on the basis of recommendation from the training school or college faculties.

11. **Extending the Period of Training:** It is admitted on all sides that one year's period is utterly insufficient for the professional training of graduate teachers. It is essential that the leading secondary teachers colleges in each province should

extend facilities for a second year of graduate work leading to Master's degree. However, at this stage, when thousands of secondary teachers are to be prepared to meet the needs of an increasing number of pupils in the secondary schools, following the introduction of free and compulsory primary education, it may not be feasible to require a two years' graduate work from every secondary teacher.

Therefore, in order to remedy the shortage of the training period, the secondary teachers colleges should be extended downwards in order to provide facilities for two years undergraduate work. The students passing Intermediate Arts (second year of college) from the liberal arts colleges should be admitted to the teachers colleges. The curriculum for the two years' undergraduate work should include, besides the usual liberal arts subjects, the foundational courses on psychology, sociology, history and philosophy of education, and the present problems of national education. In accordance with the present curricular divisions in the liberal arts colleges, the students seeking admission to teachers colleges should be given choice to elect their principal and subsidiary subjects (major and minor fields of study) from amongst psychology, sociology and education. Whatever be the fields of study of any individual student, he should not omit the basic courses from each of these three fields. At the completion of two years' work the students should appear for the B.A. examination along with other students from the liberal arts colleges, and the successful candidates should get the B.A. degree from the Universities.

Any student may join the teachers colleges for this two years' undergraduate work, but the Departments of Education should make it a general requirement that only those students who have done this type of two years undergraduate work at the teachers colleges will be eligible for appointment as teachers in the secondary schools. By this arrangement, the Department will get the graduate teachers who will already have a basic understanding of psychology, sociology, and history and philosophy of education which constitute the foundations of education. Moreover, for such graduate teachers one year's further training will be sufficient for an intensive program of professional preparation.

These few measures are urgently needed to start the work of educational reconstruction in general and that of teacher education in particular.

Problems involved in the implementation of proposals offered in this project report

No scheme, plans or proposals as such, can solve the educational problems. They only show the direction of educational change and improvement. The actual enforcement of any plan or proposals must necessarily depend upon the will and determination of the nation as a whole , the legislative action of the central and provincial governments, the administrative leadership of the Departments of Education, and the influence and alertness of the teaching profession.

Enough is known as to what needs to be done in order to improve the educational system in general and the education and the service conditions of the teachers in particular. The main obstacles to implementing the educational reforms, however, lie in the educational tradition of the colonial period which has not yet been completely rejected. In the first instance, the reconstruction of national education is impossible without an ever–increasing financial support which must depend upon the legislative action of both the central and the provincial governments. But in accordance with the colonial tradition, since the other governmental functions have been considered more important than education of the people, there has always been a lack of funds for educational purposes. Secondly, educational change and improvement depend upon the administrative leadership of the Departments of Education: they depend upon the conviction and courage of the administrators to face the educational problem, their thoughtful educational plans and programs and policies, and their administrative efforts to secure the needed trained personnel and the financial support to carry out those programs. But if the past legacy of an authoritarian type of administration suffering from redtapism, inertia and inaction continues to persist, the much needed educational leadership of the Education Departments may not be available for educational reconstruction. Thirdly, educational change in general and the improvement of the education and service conditions of teachers depend on alertness of the professional organizations of teachers and administrators to build up a strong professional

and public opinion sensitive to the problems of educational change and improvement. However, at the present stage, professional organizations of teachers and administrators are either weak or non–existent, while the illiterate population is incapable of exerting a strong public opinion on the problems of education.

Against these possible obstacles, however, the achievement of national independence has released new forces of national reconstruction which are slowly over-coming the legacy of the colonial administration.. The Central Advisory Board of Education, which was formed under a Resolution of the Pakistan Educational Conference (November–December 1947), has been giving its best thought and attention to the overall problems of educational reconstruction and rendering expert advice to the provincial governments. At the second meeting of the Board, which took place on February 7,1949 at Peshawar, Mr. Fazlur Rahman, Minister for Education, Industries, Commerce and Works, Pakistan Government, emphasized the "first and foremost task (of a) complete revision of our existing syllabi and curricula," to which " the various provincial governments are fully alive ... and are concentrating their efforts on effecting it at an early date."[1]

From this increasing interest of the central and provincial governments in the educational needs and problems of the country, is expected to result a larger measure of financial support to education which is urgently needed. This central and provincial interest in education will also speed up the efforts of the departmental officials and break the inertia of the administrative machinery. Simultaneously, the professional organizations of the teachers are slowly but surely growing day by day and soon they are expected to exert the weight of professional opinion on the educational problems of the nation. The public opinion in Pakistan is similarly gaining strength day by day, and it is certain that the masses who have made every sacrifice for the establishment of Pakistan cannot remain satisfied in absence of any speedy and positive steps in the direction of economic and educational progress of the country.

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[1]Reported in **Dawn** (the leading English daily newspaper of Pakistan) of Tuesday, February 8, 1949, Karachi, p. 6.

While the circumstances are far more favourable than ever before for the educational advancement of the country, the immediate responsibility for educational change and improvement rests on the shoulders of school administrators and teachers whom the society pays for this specific purpose. The late Sargent Report, the deliberations of the Pakistan Educational Conference, the expert opinion of the Central Advisory Board of Education in Pakistan, and the current views of the national educators and of all those who are deeply interested in the cause of education provide enough direction and guidance for the administrators and teachers in each province to proceed with the immediate tasks of educational reconstruction. This project report, in a similar way, is designed to make some positive contributions towards the reconstruction of national education in general and the improvement of teacher education in particular. It indicates the "directional goals" as well as some immediate educational tasks at hand.

To begin with, one leading secondary teachers college, one leading primary teachers college, one high school, and one or more representative primary schools in each province should be designated as "**model**" institutions to impart a new type of education on the basis of proposals contained in the various central and provincial reports and in this project report. These institutions should also serve as permanent experimental centres and, the practices found useful on the basis of empirical evidence should be introduced in other schools and training institutions.

But who is to take the initiative? Evidently it is the primary duty of the Education Departments to take these preliminary steps. However, simultaneously the faculties of the leading teachers training colleges in each province should rise to the occasion for the advancement of the teaching profession, on which depends the future of national education. Through cooperative efforts and persuasive methods the teachers colleges should get rid of the external control of their curricula and final examinations. With the achievement of this first step, they can design their professional programs to meet the needs of the prospective teachers as individuals, as citizens, and as members of the teaching profession. If the teams of new trained teachers, fully informed about the present educational

problems, and equipped with basic skills to solve them, go out annually in the nation's schools and make the local communities sensitive to the problems of education, road to educational change and progress will be assured. There is an urgent need to prepare teachers as professional workers and community leaders in order to speed up the task of educational reconstruction. The teachers colleges with all their handicaps are still in a key position to start preparing their students for educational leadership. For it is the teachers who, by their direct contact and work with the parents and the local communities, can create a strong public opinion which is the only guarantee for the educational advancement of the country.

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Landmarks in the Development of Education During the British Period

(* Asterisks show some significant political events)

The East India Company

*1600	East India Company–Charter by Queen Elizabeth
1659	East India Company–Directors state their earnest desire to spread Chirstianity and allow the missionaries to leave for India.
1698	East India Company–The renewed charter directs the company to maintain ministers at their factories and schools, wherever necessary, in all their garrisons and bigger factories.
1700–1890	(Educational initiative in the hands of missionaries)
1781–91	East India Company–First official interest in the promotion of higher oriental learning–Calcutta Madrasah (1781) and Benares College (1791) founded. The Policy continued during 1781–1833.
1808	Missionaries provoke public opposition and the company compelled to accept responsibility for education.
1813	East India Company–Educational clause in the renewed charter assigns education of the people as one of the duties of the Company–At the same time country opened to the missionary societies. A large increase in the missionary schools during 1813–33.
1833	East India Company. Charter renewed for the next twenty years–The country opposed to the missionaries from all over the world.
1833–54	The basic educational policies laid down.
1835	Macaulay's "Minute" (Feb 2nd, 1835) the cornerstone of the new educational policies. Government Resolution (March 7, 1835) confirmed the viewpoints expressed in this

	"Minute" (Triumph of Anglicists over Orientalists).
1835–38	William Adam's Reports on the state of indigenous system of education.
1839	Lord Aukland's Minute on controversial educational issues (Anglicists vs. Orientalists) Anglicists' viewpoints (as advocated by Macaulay) confirmed. Also William Adam's recommendations on indigenous education rejected.
1854	Educational Despatch of the Court of Directors (July 19, 1854) popularly known as Woods' Educational Despatch after Charles Wood, the President of the Board of Control–A long document of 100 paragraphs dealing with several educational issues of great importance. Confirmed the basic educational policies previously formulated and created the present educational structure to promote the new education.
1857	Founding of the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras.
*1858	Queen Victoria's proclamation (Nov.1, 1858) Government of India transferred from the East India Company to the Crown.

British Crown (Central Government)

1859	Second Educational Despatch confirming the policy laid down in the Despatch of 1854.
1865–71	Comprehensive Reviews of Education issued by the Government of India 1865–66, 1867–68, and 1870–71.
1871	Control of education handed over to local governments with a fixed assignment from central revenues.
1882	University of Punjab (Lahore)
1884	Hunter's "Indian Education Commission" Report
*1885	Indian National Congress (First Meeting).

1883–88	Lord Ripon's Government: Management of primary education turned over to local bodies.
1886	Publication of the "Quinquennial Reviews of the Progress of Education in India" started.
1901	Lord Curzon: Conference of Directors of Public Instruction summoned at Simla.
1902	Curzon's "Indian Universities Commission " Report.
1904	Indian Educational Policy–Government of India Resolution (March 11, 1904)
1904	Indian Universities' Act(March 24, 1904)
*1906	All India Muslim League (First Meeting)
1910	Subject of Education transferred from Home Departments of the Central Government to new Department of Education.
1911	Gokhale's Bill (extension of compulsory primary education) defeated in the Imperial Legislative Council.
1913	Indian Educational Policy -- Government of India Resolution (Feb. 21, 1913)
1913–14	Central Government–commenced issuing Annual Reviews of Education.
1917	Osmania University (Hyderabad).
*1919	Montague–Chalmsford Reforms (Education becomes "transferred" subject)
1919	Sadler's "Calcutta University Commission" Report (The Commission appointed in 1917, reported in 1919 and its recommendations were entirely approved by the government in January 1920).
1920	Education as a "transferred" subject confided almost entirely to the care of provincial governments.

British Crown (Provincial Governments)

1920	Aligarh Muslim University (Aligrah, U.P)
1920	Jamia -i- Millia Islamia founded at Aligrah (later moved to Delhi in 1925).
1920	University of Dacca (Dacca, Bengal)
1920	A central Advisory Board of Education organized.

1921	Control of education transferred to Indian Ministers.
1922	"Bureau of Education" at center discontinued.
1923	The Central Advisory Board of Education abolished; Department of Education amalgamated with other departments.
1924	All–India Conference of Indian Universities at Simla; an Inter–University Board established.
1925	Inter–University Board (First meeting, March 23–25, Bombay).

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The End

A National System of Education and Education of Teachers

N. A. Baloch

Sindh Institute of Policy Studies

eworthy that the subject matter of the book
th the birth of our beloved country Pakistan
contents of the book, therefore, appropriately
policy guidelines for the nascent country
y the entire spectrum of history, system,
institutions inherited in the education sector
The book also exhaustively makes a positive
the educational policies, programs
d in Pakistan since independence offering
commendations for improvement.

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greater significance as the national
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Dr. A.Q. Khan *NI & Bar, HI*
Special Advisor to the
Prime Minister of Pakistan
on Strategic Programme

A National System of EDUCATION
And Education of TEACHERS

N.A. Baloch

A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION AND EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

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